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THESE PAPERS REPRESENT NOTES FOR THEORY SESSIONS PRESENTED AT VARIOUS TRAINING LABORATORIES AND ARE INTENDED AS HELPFUL TOOLS IN SUPPLEMENTING THEORY SESSIONS AND UNDERSTANDING VARIOUS LABORATORY EXPERIENCES. THE IDEAS AND CONCEPTS HAVE PROVED USEFUL IN NATIONAL TRAINING LABORATORIES OVER THE YEARS. CONDITIONS FOR LABORATORY LEARNING ARE SET FORTH. THE T GROUP, WHICH EMPLOYS INQUIRY, EXPLORATION, AND EXPERIMENTATION INTO ITS OWN ACTIVITIES TO IMPROVE UNDERSTANDING OF INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP BEHAVIOR, IS ANALYZED IN TERMS OF BASIC PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS AND INTERPERSONAL PROCESSES. EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS IN ORGANIZATIONS AND GROUPS ARE EXAMINED, TOGETHER WITH LEADERSHIP AND THE MANAGEMENT OF CONFLICT, INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION, DEFENSE MECHANISMS AND PERSONAL GROWTH, USEFUL CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING GROUP GROWTH, RELATIONSHIPS AND INTERACTION BETWEEN CLIENT AND CONSULTANT, PROCESSES OF SOCIAL INTERACTION AND CHANGE, AND STAGES IN PLANNING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE. SKILLS ARE INDICATED FOR STIMULATING CHANGE IN PERFORMANCE, ATTITUDES, AND UNDERSTANDINGS OF AN INDIVIDUAL, GROUP, ORGANIZATION, OR COMMUNITY. THE DOCUMENT NOTES PURPOSES AND PERSONNEL OF THE "JOURNAL OF APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE," LISTS NATIONAL TRAINING BOARD MEMBERS (MAY 1966), AND PROVIDES READING LISTS. (LY)

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READING BOOK
TWENTIETH ANNUAL LABORATORIES
IN
HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING

1966-67

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READING BOOK

TWENTIETH ANNUAL SUMMER LABORATORIES
IN
HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING

1966

Bethel, Maine	Lake Arrowhead, California	Cedar City, Utah
NTL	NTL - WTL	NTL - ILGD

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Relevant Reading List

PREFATORY NOTE

The papers reproduced here represent notes for theory sessions presented at various laboratories, some by present staff members. They are intended as tools that may be helpful in supplementing theory sessions and understanding various laboratory experiences. The ideas and concepts touched on here have proved useful in laboratories over the years. Many of them have been tested and in part derived from laboratory experience and research. They will be relevant to much that happens at the present laboratory session and will probably provide the basis for some of the theory sessions. Individual theory presentations will not be mimeographed.

HISTORICAL NOTE ON LABORATORY TRAINING

In 1947, NTL pioneered in human relations training, conducting in Bethel, Maine, the first national training laboratory. Sixty-seven leaders from many occupations participated in this new approach to teaching and training in human relations and social change. Sponsors were the Research Center for Group Dynamics (then at M.I.T., now at the University of Michigan) and the National Education Association. The project was based on an experiment in community leadership training conducted in 1946 in Connecticut, the staff including Kenneth Benne, Leland Bradford, the late Kurt Lewin, and Ronald Lippitt.

Early support from the Carnegie Corporation made it possible for the National Training Laboratories to experiment and to grow. In 1950 NTL was established as a part of the Adult Education Division of the NEA. In 1962 NTL was made an independent division of the NEA.

Since 1955, interest in a number of occupational fields has led NTL to develop special training programs - for industrial management, for government personnel in Puerto Rico, for professional church workers (sponsored by the National Council of Churches), for community leaders, for college student-faculty teams, for school administrators, for individual national organizations and major industries.

Since 1947, the initial summer laboratory has expanded into a year-round program of training, consultation, research, and publication; and human relations training has spread to many parts of the world. Programs utilizing similar methods have been established in a number of other countries, and each summer participants come to NTL laboratories from every continent.

Regional training and research centers have also been established at a number of universities in this country. Stimulating communication and collaboration among these centers has been one of the important results of the spread of interest in training and in turn has become a factor in further spread.

Since 1962, summer laboratories have been conducted collaboratively by NTL and two of the outstanding regional laboratories: the Western Training Laboratory established in California in 1952 and the Intermountain Laboratory in Group Development established in 1955 in Utah. In California, laboratories are jointly sponsored at Lake Arrowhead by NTL, WTL, and the University of California at Los Angeles (University Extension, the School of Education, the Institute of Industrial Relations, and the Graduate School of Business Administration). In Utah, laboratories are sponsored at Cedar City by NTL, ILGD, the University of Utah, and cooperating colleges and universities of the region.

The staffs for the growing number of laboratories are drawn from the network of qualified trainers located at universities across the country and comprising the Associates and Fellows of NTL. This network is augmented each year through NTL's social science intern program supported by the National Institute of Mental Health and by corporate gifts.

Human relations training has been called a "predictable response to the need for increasing sophistication about social phenomena." A major goal from the beginning has been to build bridges between the world of human sciences and that of practical affairs.

PURPOSES

HUMAN RELATIONS LABORATORY TRAINING

Human relations laboratory training is designed to help each individual realize his own potential for growth more fully and to increase his ability to work effectively with others in a varity of situations. By learning how to develop effective teamwork, individuals can join forces to bring about organizational and community change and improvement. Skills for effective change efforts are outlined elsewhere in these readings. The following five factors are seen as important broad objectives of training:

Self-insight

Better understanding of other persons and awareness of one's impact on them

Better understanding of group processes and increased skill in achieving group effectiveness

Increased recognition of the characteristics of larger social systems

Greater awareness of the dynamics of change.

A training laboratory tries to create a climate encouraging learnings, understandings, insights, skills in the areas of self, group, and organization:

SELF	INTERPERSONAL AND GROUP RELATIONS	ORGANIZATION
Own feelings and motivations	Establishing meaningful interpersonal relationships	Understanding organizational complexities
Correctly perceiving effects of behavior on others	Finding a satisfying place in the group	Developing and inventing appropriate new patterns and procedures
Correctly understanding effect of others' behavior on self	Understanding dynamic complexities in group behavior	Helping to diagnose and solve problems between units of the organization
Hearing others and accepting helpful criticism	Developing diagnostic skills to understand group problems and processes	Working as a member and as a leader
Appropriately interacting with others	Acquiring skills of helping the group on task and maintenance problems	

LABORATORY IN COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP TRAINING

The Laboratory in Community Leadership Training is a response to the need for "training for community action." It was initiated following a survey NTL conducted in 1959 in which a broadly representative group of community leaders were interviewed concerning obstacles to effective community action and the need for a new approach to training in community leadership. There was wide concern over such obstacles as -

Breakdown in communication within groups and between groups

Inadequate use and development of available human resources

Poor linkages between professionals and volunteers, between national office and local chapter, between public and private enterprise in the community

Inadequate goal setting - and limited or ineffective involvement in decision making about significant problems

Resistance to change.

The first community leadership training laboratory was conducted in Bethel in 1960. Each of the laboratories is planned and conducted by a staff team of social scientists especially concerned with the practical application of available knowledge in community problem solving. Working with this staff team is a national Advisory Committee representative of a wide range of community action programs.

Since 1962, the laboratory has been conducted in two sessions - in Bethel and in Utah (with the University of Utah and the Intermountain Laboratory in Group Development). In 1965, Emory University, with NTL cooperation, sponsored the first Atlanta Regional Laboratory for Community Leadership Development. This year, the laboratory will be sponsored by Emory and Georgia State College, with NTL cooperation. These laboratories stress the basic elements of human relations training, emphasizing learnings about self, group, and organization. They also seek -

Increased understanding of the nature of the community and of forces affecting communities

Increased understanding of the changing dimensions of community life and their impact on individuals, groups, and organizations

Increased understanding of the relevance of behavioral science to community action

Increased understanding and skill in the small group as the effective work unit even in urban communities

Increased understanding and skill as change agent.

Three major parts of the laboratory design are the T Group for personal sensitivity and group process training, Problem Analysis Sessions (applying laboratory learnings to participants' community problems), and Theory Sessions to present relevant information and theory.

LABORATORY FOR EDUCATORS

The Educators Laboratory has been established because of the many ways in which laboratory training methods relate to the improvement of educational practices--in the classroom and in the administration of a school or of a school system. Rapid social and community change make good communication, interpersonal skills, and knowledge of how change is brought about increasingly important. Small-group processes are utilized daily in classroom, faculty meeting, board meeting, parent committee. Organizational change theory is applicable to daily problems of decision making, communication, and problem solving. The Laboratory is seen as an opportunity to increase knowledge and personal skills in each of these areas.

The laboratory is conducted in three sessions--at Bethel, Maine; at Lake Arrowhead, California (with the Western Training Laboratory and the School of Education, University of California at Los Angeles); and at Cedar City, Utah (with the Intermountain Laboratory and the University of Utah and cooperating institutions).

The laboratory incorporates basic elements of human relations training focused on self, group, and organizational systems, and it also seeks --

> Better understanding of group processes basic to teamwork for educational improvement. The school administrator and the teacher need to know how groups grow, define goals, set standards, reach decisions, solve problems, and how groups are maintained, changed, or dissolved.
>
> Improved individual leadership and membership skills to make these group processes work.
>
> Increased sensitivity to social and psychological factors affecting individual and group productivity in the school system and in the classroom.
>
> Improved awareness of one's own effect on individuals and on group situations.
>
> Improved understanding of the dynamics of school-community relations.
>
> Improved consultation skills.
>
> Information from recent social science research relative to these objectives.

Reflecting the increasing interest in laboratory training among educators (and serving also to stimulate further interest), the major professional associations of school administrators now jointly sponsor these laboratories. Sponsors include the American Association of School Administrators, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the Department of Classroom Teachers, the Department of Elementary School Principals, the National Association for Public School Adult Education, and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Various training activities stemming out of the laboratories also have joint sponsorships through the year.

LABORATORY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The decision of the Board of NTL to initiate a program concerned with the improvement of campus life followed exploratory conversations in 1959 and 1960 by NTL Associates with national organizations and associations interested in campus leadership and visits to a number of campuses to test the need and readiness for a special NTL summer laboratory for students. The interuniversity staff team developed to plan this program reviewed new research knowledge about campus culture and considered the resources NTL could bring to an experimental approach.

The first college laboratory was conducted in 1960 for student leaders only. It was partly as the result of their urging that NTL conducted the following summer two concurrent laboratories, one for student teams and one for members of the teaching faculty and administration. Beginning in 1962, NTL has conducted a summer laboratory in which students, faculty, and administrators could work and learn together. (Fifty colleges participated in laboratories during the period 1960-1963.)

In addition to the basic program incorporating the major elements of laboratory training, there are three special areas of concentration -- one on the administrative and organizational life of the campus, one on teaching-learning transactions in the classroom, and one on the introduction of change in the college setting. A college may select one team to concentrate on one area, or teams to participate in different areas of concentration. Each team includes both students and faculty.

Summer 1966 reflects the growing support for the college program. As a result of pilot programs for the last three years, laboratories in higher education will be conducted in Cedar City, Utah, as well as in Bethel, Maine. NTL, the University of Utah, and the cooperating institutions of the Intermountain Laboratory for Group Development will sponsor this additional laboratory that will enable western colleges to participate without excessive travel costs. The programs at Bethel and Cedar City are both under the direction of the NTL Core Committee in Higher Education. 1966 also marks the extension of program innovations in the Bethel laboratories. One section of the laboratory will be made up of graduate teaching fellows and their faculty supervisors, and emphasis will be given to the training needs of persons planning a teaching career at the college level. A second program will be for individuals in student personnel work who have had some previous laboratory experience and would like to develop skills in conducting workshops on their own campuses. A third section will develop skills for introducing major changes in the college.

The broad goal of laboratory training is growth in individual perspective and performance and - through such growth - change in groups, in organizations, and in institutional patterns. Within these broad objectives, teams have elected a major focus on leadership development for student affairs or student-faculty collaboration in classroom learning.

TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES FOR ALUMNI

Over the years a large number of "alumni" return for further laboratory training, and considerable thought is given to how their needs and interests can best be met. Many have found a second regular laboratory rewarding. A number have also found some of the more specialized laboratories of value. Persons with community leadership responsibilities, whether as volunteers or as professionals, for instance, come back to the Community Laboratory, sometimes as members of community or organizational teams. In some instances school administrators and teachers, having had a regular laboratory experience, return for a laboratory focused more directly on problems and opportunities for utilizing laboratory training in their work. Similarly, there have been a number of satisfactory experiences in which persons first attending a specialized laboratory (whether for industry, for church workers, for community leaders, for educators, or others) have returned for a regular or human relations laboratory. Experience indicates that new and different learnings as well as a reinforcing of learnings can result from such a second experience.

In addition, there are from time to time experimental or innovative laboratories designed especially for alumni. The Laboratory in Personal Growth is such a program. This is planned for persons who have already had some opportunity to work through some of the key aspects of their personalities which have typically interfered with their own personal effectiveness. It emphasizes the positive aspects of self, one's creative possibilities, understanding one's self, experiencing one's life more fully, and achieving more authentic and satisfying interpersonal relations.

Another program designed especially for alumni is the Laboratory in Conflict Management. It was initiated in 1964 in response to the ever-increasing need in our society to learn more effective ways for coping constructively with the dynamic forces of conflict. The laboratory approach combines the personal experience of each participant -- including his own behavior and its consequences -- with theory and practice relevant to the field of conflict management. The T Group, intergroup exercises, and the entire laboratory community will be used as settings for learning about conflict management. The aim is not the elimination but the more rational management of conflict.

The laboratory focuses on understanding the dynamics of different kinds of conflict situations. For instance, some conflicts are based on distrust or lack of communication; other conflicts reflect differences in values or ideologies; and another type is based on competition between individuals or groups for limited rewards where one party must win and the other must lose. Through understanding the underlying bases of conflict, it is possible to develop more appropriate strategies for the management of conflict to fit a particular case. This includes looking at similarities and differences in the dynamics of conflict within the individual, between persons, in the small group, between groups, in a large organization, and in a community.

From time to time also NTL conducts special training programs for persons actively engaged in training work in their own organizations. Such programs presuppose basic laboratory training and considerable professional training and experience.

APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE INTERN PROGRAM

Since 1960 NTL has conducted an advanced eight-week training program for persons qualified by professional training and experience to prepare for work as trainers. To help support this program, NTL has received a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health. The program includes an intern training laboratory conducted by senior members of the NTL network, the opportunity to observe the training laboratories conducted at Bethel and to discuss training issues with laboratory staff members, seminars on the theory and practice of training, research, and consultation in applied behavioral science, practice in various aspects of laboratory training, and supervised staff assignments.

ORGANIZATION INTERN PROGRAM

For individuals who are actively engaged in laboratory training within their company or organization, this program is designed to develop participants' training skills and theoretical insights in the area of laboratory training.

During the seven-week program, participants explore the theory and principles underlying laboratory training and its application to management development; practice designing and conducting training exercises, participative cases, and roleplaying situations; explore various approaches to organizational development; and explore the theory and practice of T-Group leadership. In the last two and one-half weeks of the program, each participant is provided the opportunity to serve as an assistant trainer in designing and conducting an NTL laboratory under the supervision of experienced NTL trainers. Enrollment is limited to 20.

CONTINUING RELATIONSHIP WITH NTL

Laboratory participation often stimulates an interest in further help of various kinds. NTL is prepared to collaborate in a number of ways with organizations, colleges, communities, school systems interested in staff development, leadership training, organizational improvement, human relations course, research and research utilization. Patterns of continuing relationship include the following:

1. Further laboratory participation

Participants frequently encourage their organizations to send other participants each summer so that there is a growing number of persons to support one another in change efforts. Increasingly, too, organizations send teams so that action planning may be initiated and teamwork developed during the laboratory.

2. Consulting services

Through its national network of trainers and consultants, NTL is able to provide qualified staff to consult with organizations (businesses, colleges, communities, school systems, voluntary associations) in planning and developing such programs as --

-- leadership training workshops for members, officers, boards, etc.
-- inservice training programs for staff
-- human relations courses
-- research programs on organizational improvement
-- innovation in practices and procedures

3. Staffing services

NTL consultants and trainers (Associates and Fellows) are located at universities across the country. A frequent pattern is for an organization to ask NTL to help in recruiting appropriate staff for programs of training, consultation, research.

4. Information services

-- Selected Readings Series bringing together in one booklet carefully selected papers written since 1948, often difficult to obtain. Topics are of major interest in the field of human relations training (group development, leadership, teaching-learning, community development, training issues, conference planning).

-- Training News - 8-page quarterly designed to help alumni and others interested in training and in applied behavioral science to keep abreast of developments in the field.

-- Exploration in Human Relations Training and Research - informal interchange of papers of importance and interest in the field but not published or delayed in publication.

-- Filmographs - sound film describing a training laboratory and designed to help interpret training. A second film is available describing the college leadership training program.

CONDITIONS FOR LABORATORY LEARNING

The following conditions need to be met in various ways if participants are to reach personal goals of improvement and change in insights, understandings, sensitivities, and skills.

Presentation of self: Until the individual has an opportunity to reveal the way he sees things and does things, he has little basis for improvement and change.

Feedback: Individuals do not learn from their experience. They learn from bringing out the essential patterns of purposes, motives, and behavior in a situation where they can receive back clear and accurate information about the relevancy and effectiveness of their behavior. They need a feedback system which continuously operates so that they can change and correct what is inappropriate.

Atmosphere: An atmosphere of trust and non-defensiveness is necessary for people both to be willing to expose their behavior and purposes, and to accept feedback.

Cognitive Map. Knowledge from research, theory, and experience is needed and important to enable the individual both to understand his experiences and to generalize from them. But generally information is most effective when it follows experience and feedback.

Experimentation: Unless there is opportunity to try out new patterns of thought and behavior, they never become a part of the individual. Without experimental efforts relevant change is difficult to make.

Practice: Equally important is the need to practice new approaches so that the individual gains security in being different.

Application: Unless learning and change can be applied to backhome situations, they are not likely to be effective or lasting. Attention needs to be given to helping individuals plan application.

Relearning how to learn: Because much of our academic experience has led us to believe that we learn out of listening to authorities, there is frequently need to learn how to learn from presentation-feedback-experimentation.

The initial T-Group experience provides opportunities to explore traditional patterns of behavior.

In the T-Group a vacuum is created by the trainer's refusing to carry out the traditional expectations of his role: leadership, agenda, and procedure setting. Into this vacuum of lack of formal leadership and lack of clarity about goals and procedures, members rush in with the purpose of filling in the missing ingredients. Thus the first condition of training is met.

Each T-Group has as its task improving learning of each individual. For feedback to follow presentation of self, an appropriate climate needs to be developed. Legitimate opportunities for individuals to try out new ways of behaving need to be present. The T-Group and the Training Laboratory are designed to meet these conditions.

THE T GROUP AS AN APPROACH TO LEARNING

The T-Group is an experience in social creativity. From ten to fifteen individuals face the task, within a relatively short but concentrated period of time, of creating, developing, and maintaining a small social organization - a miniature society - under unusual conditions. This emerging social organization faces real, hard-headed problems of social formation, individual relationships, and work achievement.

While the T-Group and its task is unique, it is certainly not artificial. The T-Group in its beginnings has absent, blurred, or ambiguous such fundamental ingredients of social organization as authority and power structure, processes of goal formation, norms of personal and group behavior, procedures for productive work, and expectations for leader and member behavior. These voids and ambiguities must be filled or reduced through the hard work of the group members. Their work efforts provide the basic human behavioral material - the curriculum - for a variety of learnings.

Although the T-Group is a miniature society, it has aspects not typically found in social organizations. Peculiar to the T-Group is its process of inquiry, exploration, and experimentation into its own activities. Peculiar, too, at least for most social organizations, is its sole purpose of helping individual members to learn. The process of developing a group in which to learn becomes the means for achieving this purpose.

Experience in social creativity provided by the T-Group has learning values difficult to secure elsewhere. Seldom in life is one in on the creation of a segment of society. Individuals are born into families where structures and organization are present. They learn to become part of an on-going organization, even though their entrance adds further dimensions to the organization. They enter a school, go to a church, become part of a community. In each instance they accept (or resist) rules, customs, laws set down for them. Even marriage, where a new family group is created, has relatively established role expectations and cultural traditions. If one is a founding member of a new organization, the pattern of organization is largely set through precedent and tradition.

Only rarely, under emergency conditions as in Barrie's Admirable Crichton, are social assumptions tested and radically changed. Few people have the opportunity to be tossed, figuratively, from the sky and to face the necessity of hacking their way collaboratively out of a social jungle. If they did, they would gain new insights into the dynamics of social organization. They would come to understand on cognitive, feeling, and operational levels the great need for both order and change and the delicate relationship and balance that must lie between them. If in the process they had individually to re-win position through present accomplishments rather than previously secured status symbols, they would also increase in ability to be socially innovative and creative in other social situations. And if they learned habitually to test assumptions about social organizations, ineffective and archaic models might no longer perpetuate themselves.

As the T-Group struggles with problems of formation, of goal clarification, of individual difficulties in working out patterns of membership adequate for both the individual and the group, the learning emphasis could be focused on the development of cultural norms in the group, on the process of social organization, on the dynamics of group behavior; on interpersonal relationships, on individual perceptual and motivational systems; or on individual and group value systems. Essentially data about all these aspects of human behavior -- far more than can be utilized -- are generated in the T-Group. What data to utilize should be determined by the learning needs and priorities of its members. However, because the T-Group is a very real social organization, to attempt to focus on any one aspect of human behavior -- whether individual awareness of self, sensitivity to others, or understanding of group forces -- would make a real experience artificial. One cannot understand group forces without, at the same time, understanding one's own relationships in the group.

To a large extent, the T-Group both creates its own textbook and reads it almost simultaneously. Each day a new chapter is written and read. Sometimes past chapters are re-read with new meaning. Often they can be understood only in the light of later chapters. The problem for each group and each trainer is to know which parts of the large textbook to study intensively. This decision, or rather these continuous decision situations, are complex. Sometimes the trainer can help by encouraging the reading of certain passages, but the book is open for all to read. Members will read different parts according to their needs and abilities and then attempt to write what they learn into the next day's chapter. Perhaps the most important aspect of the T-Group process of creating and analyzing human data is not the reading of any particular passage but rather helping people learn how to read the human behavioral data they are continuously producing and, equally important (and equally neglected) learning how to help one another to read.

This, then, is the T-Group: a group formed for individual learning purposes where the data are created and analyzed by group work and not fed in from outside and interpreted by a teacher, where learning is a group task entered into jointly, where the trainer does not deny the group the experience of creating and maintaining their own group even though this experience will be difficult and may produce anxiety. Out of this experience are realized the two major goals of the T-Group - learning how to learn and learning how to become more effective in giving and receiving help. The processes of developing the learning group and of acquiring membership skills provide the raw data from which to achieve these goals.

These characteristics suggest important dimensions for examining the T-Group more thoroughly:

1. The ambiguous situation
2. An identity crisis
3. Self investment or participation
4. Collaboration and learning from peers
5. Experienced behavior and feedback
6. Interrelated task and maintenance problems
7. Trainer intervention
8. Growth and development

FEELINGS AND GROUP ACTION

We know some important things about group actions as they may be affected by affection states. Research on small task groups reveals a pattern of complex interactions which it is not easy to trace in terms of specifics. For example, high self-esteem can operate to set higher group goals or, self-protectively, to set lower ones. High self-esteem generates more individual poise and self-confidence where group demands are easy, but not where they are difficult and exacting. Groups with high interdependence show greater pressures on the individual than groups with low interdependence.

On the positive side, the concept of "satisfaction" almost invariably includes some share in the decision-making process, some clarity of goal and purpose, the feeling that others in the group take an interest in one and support him.

Now, in the spirit of the individual research that each of us is doing on himself, there is the question of the effects of feelings upon the group actions where we are participants. To be sure, T-Groups are not as easily assessed as are other types of task groups. Still, we are individually and collectively faced with the opportunity to trace out in a daily-even hourly-way our own and others' feelings and consequent group actions.

The self-concept which includes self-esteem is a major way of reflecting the good and bad feelings one has about the self. Our idealized self which comes into the new group is effective, productive, humorous, appropriately competitive, supportive to others, and insightful. Most of us, in a less defensive mood, would doubtless admit that this picture is not quite correct. In each of us, at least part of the time, the productiveness may be tinged with compulsion, the affection with dependency needs, the insight with pain and anxiety, humor with hostility, etc.

Since self-concept is such a precious thing for most people, we tend to keep hidden -- even from ourselves -- feelings that are different from what we would like them to be like. Putting it bluntly, we kid ourselves and others. The recognition of the role played by one's feelings in terms of his group membership and actions is a most important aspect of the total lab experience.

Suppose that the self-concept is heavily protected by defensiveness, resistance toward revealing our thoughts or feelings -- a fear of levelling with others -- lest we become vulnerable to criticism and attack, or simply to a decrease in our own positive self-images. Suppose further that a number of people -- say in the T-Group -- experience similar feelings and "protect" themselves by defensiveness. It may be, in that case, that the group atmosphere is heavily saturated with this defensive feeling. We know from both social and task group studies that defensiveness lowers group productivity and efficiency.

One important question confronting the T-Group is whether it can facilitate the lowering of defensive barriers in the individual members. Can the individual affect the emotional climate of the group in the direction of greater openness?

The group situation frequently becomes for the individuals in it a kind of "projecting" situation. We see people -- peers, authorities, subordinates in ways that we are used to from previous experiences. Since unstructured situations are almost always more threatening than structured ones, we may find ourselves thrown back upon these previously learned modes of response. As a consequence we may operate from a defensive crouch or from a position of aggression -- neither of which may really be appropriate or helpful. In brief we are often fearful. How can the group help its members to become less fearful? Failures and successes encountered in our T-Group experiences should prove instructive.

Combat is inevitable in our competitive society. If we are honest with ourselves we will recognize it. However, communally and individually the question which confronts us is: "Can we compete without destroying?" Many of us are so fearful of this issue that we abdicate all struggles for leadership. On the other hand others of us are "ready" to fight if anyone tries to assume a leadership function. The question, "When are fight feelings appropriate?" is a basic one. Indeed, when is it less appropriate to fight than to leave the issue -- the position -- the job -- or even the community?

Affection and support are such touchy issues in our society when affection is viewed with suspicion. On the other hand being supportive runs the risk of becoming a smothering prolongation of dependency. Yet no democratically-based group can effectively function without these elements. How can these factors be developed as helps in a groups' procedures and operations? In your T-Groups, problems around these issues may be a source of significant personal learning.

It is perhaps a serious error to expect that the T-Group will function to magically dispel the anxieties and tensions one habitually experience in action groups. The contrary will nearly always be a more correct anticipation. The T-Group experience provides a safe "arena" in which one's own feelings and those of one's group fellows may be observed and felt and their consequences upon personal and group action be observed.

EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS IN GROUPS AND ORGANIZATIONS

Most human behavior expresses striving for emotional satisfaction or the avoidance of emotional threats. We act to move toward what we want and away from what we fear or dislike. Even behavior which seems unemotional usually serves emotional ends. For example, routine habits often become intrinsically satisfying. Men become irrationally attached to familiar objects and annoyed if they can't have their customary coffee-cup.. fountain pen, newspaper, or easy-chair. The principle of functional autonomy (Gordon Allport) summarizes the fact that means toward desired ends may themselves become drives with emotional power.

What about objective, rational activities like accounting, law, science, mathematics, and philosophy? Are these also emotion-driven? Most assuredly. Each may be promoted and defended by its adherents as vigorously as a mother would protect or defend a beloved child. Science may be rational but even good scientists may be fanatics. Acrimonious controversies have lighted with flame the whole path of scientific advance. Philosophers have written their greatest works in impassioned refutation of the theories of their opponents. Prose as well as poetry is driven by motives and laden with feelings.

Problems arise, not because emotions are present, but because they are ill-used. People get into trouble, not because they have emotions - emotions are healthy - but because of mistaken, attempts to repress, distort, or disguise their true emotions.

A common mistake is to ignore the emotional factors. The man who pretends to himself that he is a rational calculating machine, moved only by ideas and concerned only for correctness, suffers from a grave illusion. He may have ceased to recognize his feelings, but emotions have not ceased to stimulate his glands and to twist his guts. He cannot live a sane life until he relaxes his severe repression and becomes once again able to feel.

The same mistaken viewpoint sometimes causes working groups to ignore feelings. In effect they say, we have work to do. Let's lay aside ill feelings and buckle down to business! All that happens then is that feelings are forced to operate under the table. What is said on the surface of the table may resemble the give and take of ideational ping-pong balls, batted back and forth, but under the table, if your ear is attuned to it, you can hear heavy bowling balls being rolled by participants at their opponents.

The test of a good decision, which will be carried out wholeheartedly, is not whether it has been unemotionally made, but rather whether all of the emotions involved have been expressed, recognized, and taken into account. Innumerable business decisions are bad because they have been devised on the assumption that feelings can be laid aside or ignored. The "discipline of practical judgment" (Cf. R. B. Raup) requires skill in making decisions where the data about emotions are considered along with all the other facts affecting the outcome.

A second common mistake is to disguise certain feelings and to act as if they were different in quality from what they are. The distortion is almost always in the direction of some fake model regarded as socially desirable.

The classical neurosis, described by Freud in Nineteenth Century Austria, was due largely to denial of sex feelings. We are more familiar today with the man who is unable to recognize or express his chronic resentment and anger. In patients, this hostility is usually directed toward a parent. The patient may tell us that she is devoted to a mother whom she really hates. The business official may believe that he admires and respects a boss or rival whom he despises and resents. The consequent symptoms may be ulcers or depression or mean attacks on innocent by-standers.

Again a man may pretend to himself and others that he wants to succeed and wants his company to thrive, but his actions may strangely have quite the opposite effect. In extreme cases, a manager will continue, unintentionally, to repeat mistakes which destroy his own career and injure the corporation he says he is trying to serve. Again and again, in therapy, we encounter the person who thinks he is seeking a goal which is really the last thing he really wants. One of Freud's first discoveries was that patients who come complaining of certain symptoms actually cling to those very symptoms and resist efforts to free them.

Such behavior is too far fetched and clinical for a healthy group like this, but let me call attention to some of the smaller distortions of feeling in our life together.

Take the phenomenon Freud called "transference" and which Sullivan extended to "parataxic distortion." When you first met some of the other people here, did you experience some strong impressions? Were there some you felt you would like and others you preferred to avoid? Did some instantly seem warm and others cold? Some trustworthy and others likely to bear watching?

On what were these first impressions based? Largely on resemblance to other people who have been important in your life. The impressions and expectations may be quite irrelevant to the person you meet here. Yet they can operate quickly and powerfully. The errors induced are not easily corrected. We don't like a certain guy - we don't know why. We avoid him - he senses our reaction - and dislikes us. So the self-confirming prophecy operates. He turns out to be as disagreeable as we expected him to be. The self-confirming prophecy also works the other way. We seek out the company of the man we think we're going to like. He responds to our interest in him. Sure enough, we do like each other. But, if we had treated the man we rejected as a promising friend, he might have become as congenial to us as the man we expected to like. We have mistakenly interpreted an accidental and incidental resemblance to someone else as our own intuitive talent. It is more apt to mislead us than to prove reliable.

We are particularly misled when we pretend certain feelings so hard that we lose contact with what we really feel. In your first T-Group you may have seen members who were feeling quite anxious, whose palms were sweaty, and whose dry mouth called for frequent swallowing, who would have told you that they were quite at ease, quite comfortable, and enjoying the pleasant banter. You may have heard members asking polite questions and feigning interest in the operation of back home organizations about which they didn't really give a tinker's darn. You have seen them, perhaps here, and certainly back home, believing that they are trying to help a guy when really they feel like cutting his throat. A lot of you have made yourself do certain parts of your work for so long and so well that you are no longer aware of how you hate those tasks. Most of us are unable to let ourselves feel, consciously, our own inexorably approaching death, or the imminent peril that civilization will be shattered by nuclear weapons. We close our minds, direct our attention elsewhere, look on the bright side, and hope disaster will pass away. Only by such maneuvers could we expend, under the pseudonyms of patriotic defense, unprecedented and rapidly rising amounts of money and trained scientific man-power to increase the size and probability of the holocaust we think we are trying to avoid. But that national neurosis carries us beyond the proper limits of our laboratory tasks.

It is not surprising that people who, for years, have pretended to others that they feel what they don't really feel, should lose their discrimination among their own emotions.

Others often are aware of feelings we do not recognize in ourselves. Underlying the kind words of one woman for another we may hear a jealousy which she would be quick to deny. Listening to a young person debate a marital or vocational choice, we may be aware, long before he is, of where he would come out.

One of the values of the feedback which we give one another in the unusually frank atmosphere of a T-Group is that it tells us about some of our feelings which are more apparent to others than to us.

One model of T-Group learning is called the Johari Window (immortalizing Joe Luft and Harry Ingham of California).

	Known to Self	Not Known to Self
Known to Others	I Area of Free Activity	II Blind Area
Not Known to Others	III Avoided or Hidden Area	IV Area of Unknown Activity

As we become more frank, we move some feelings from the hidden area toward the open. As our fellow group members become more frank, they reveal to us our own feelings which we have failed to recognize.

Reviewing a moment, the first point of this paper was to recognize that emotions are always present - a necessary and desirable and important part of every-life-activity. The second counsel is the Socratic "Know thyself." If you try too long and too hard to kid others, you'll end up by misleading and defeating yourself.

The third counsel looks to balance. One trouble with the emotional side of personality, is its tendency to overdo one pattern of satisfaction or another.

As an illustration let us take three familiar types of managers (as defined by Richard Wallen): The Tough Battler, the Friendly Helper, and the Objective Thinker who has tried to avoid both tough and tender emotions.

	Tough Battler	Friendly Helper	Objective Thinker
Emotions	Accepts aggression Rejects affection	Accepts affection Rejects aggression	Rejects both affection and interpersonal aggression
Goal	Dominance	Acceptance	Correctness
Judges others by	Strength, power	Warmth	Cognitive ability
Influences others by	Direction; Intimidation; Control of rewards	Offering understanding, praise, favors, friendship	Factual data; logical arguments
Value in organization	Initiates, demands, disciplines	Supports, harmonizes, relieves tension	Defines, clarifies gets information, criticizes, tests
Over-uses	Fight	Kindness	Analysis
Becomes	Pugnacious	Sloppy sentimental	Pedantic
Fears	Being "soft" or dependent	Desertion, conflict	Emotions; irrational acts
Needs	Warmth; consideration; objectivity; humility	Strength; integrity; Firmness; self-assertion	Awareness of feeling; ability to love and to fight

On the chart above are shown characteristic emotions, goals, standards of evaluation, techniques of influence of each type, and his service to the organization.

Each can be overdone and distorted. The Tough Battler would be a better manager, a better father, a better neighbor, and a more satisfied person if he could learn some sensitivity, accept his own inevitable dependence on others, and come to enjoy consideration for them. He would be more successful if he recognized that some facts will not yield to pugnacity.

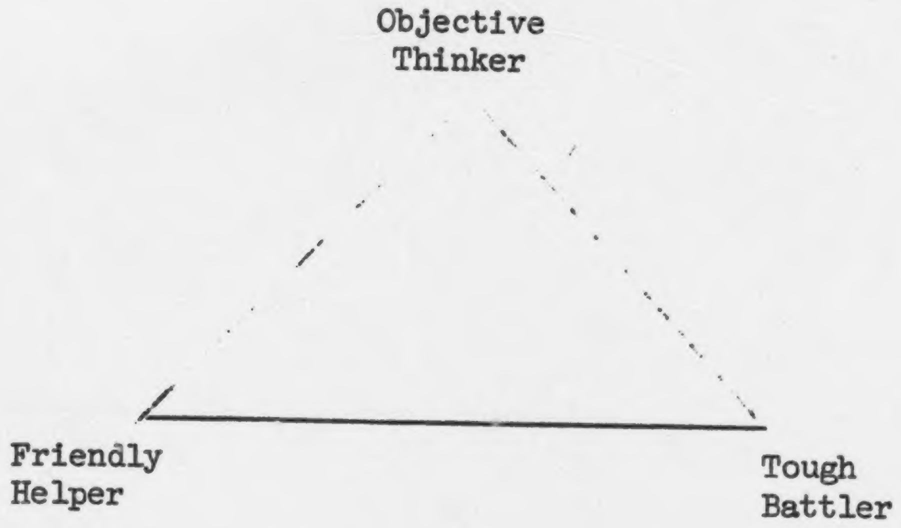
The Friendlip Helper would be a better manager,father, citizen, and person if he could stand up for his own interests and for what is right, even against the pleas of others. He needs firmness and strength and courage not to evade or to smooth over conflicts. He must face facts.

The Objective Thinker would be a better human being and a better business leader if he could become more aware of his own feelings and the feelings of others around him. He needs to learn that there are times when it is all right to fight and times when it is desirable to love.

The three pure types are, of course, only abstractions. Most of us fall somewhere within the triangle shown in Fig. 1. If we are too far off center, - too far from Aristotle's Golden Mean - the laboratory here gives us a chance to try to rectify our human balance. We can try out, in the relatively safe environment of the T-Group, some behavior patterns we have usually neglected. We can experiment with behaviors rather the opposite of those on which we have too often relied. How much of this trial behavior we should want to keep will depend on how it works. But let's not give up too quickly. One doesn't learn golf by playing one round. The habits of decades don't change in days, but we can start here and now processes that will continue for years back home.

We shall be supported in our efforts to grow and improve by a psychological force which has only recently come in for much attention. There seems to be in each of us a strong drive toward wholeness. Something in us protests at our own lop-sidedness and distortions. Gardner Murphy writes of realizing human potentialities; Carl Rogers finds patients self-correcting; Abe Maslow sees self-actualization as a major motive; Gordon Allport's term is "Becoming." If we become sensitive to our own inner impulses, we shall not need external sticks and carrots to motivate us toward a fuller, richer, better life.

Figure 1



DEFENSES AND THE NEED TO KNOW

The purpose of this session is to discuss the ways we have of protecting our views of ourselves and others. Specifically, it is intended to rescue the concept of "defensive behavior" from the ostracism in which it is usually held, restoring it to its rightful place as a major tool of man in adapting to a changing world, and considering how defenses may help and hinder us in really profiting from a learning situation.

Let us consider how we understand the world we live in, and particularly those parts of it concerning ourselves and our relations with other people. First of all, we organize the world according to concepts, or categories. We say that things are warm or cold; good or bad; simple or complex. Each of these concepts may be considered a dimension along which we can place events in the world, some closer to one end of the dimension, some closer to the other.

Actually, we can't really think without using these categories or dimensions to organize our thoughts. Any time we consider the qualities of ourselves, other persons, or events in the inanimate world, we have to use categories to do it. We are dependent for our understanding of the world on the concepts and categories we have for organizing our experiences. If we lack a concept for something which occurs in the world, we either have to invent one, or we cannot respond to the event in an organized fashion. How, for example would a person explain his own or others' behavior without the concept of love and hate? Think how much behavior would simply puzzle or confuse him or, perhaps, just go on by without really being perceived at all, for lack of this one dimension.

Concepts do not exist in isolation; they are connected to one another by a network of relationships. Taken all together, the concepts we use to understand a situation, plus the relationships among the concepts, are called a conceptual system. For example, we may say, "People who are warm and friendly are usually trusting, and hence, they are often deceived by others." Here we have a conceptual system linking the concepts friendly warmth, trust in others, and ease of deception. Because concepts are linked one to another, the location of an event on one concept usually implies something about where the event is located on each of a whole network of concepts. It is thus almost impossible to take in a small bit of information about a characteristic of a person or event without its having a whole host of implications about other characteristics.

Images and stereotypes operate this way: when we discover that a person is a Negro, or a PTA president, a social scientist, or a wife, the information on these concepts immediately calls up a whole network of expectations about other characteristics of the person. In the case of stereotypes, these expectations may even be so strong that we do not check to find out whether our conceptual system worked accurately this time, but may even go to the other extreme of ignoring or distorting information which doesn't fit the conceptual system, so that the system may remain quite unaffected by disconfirming experiences.

The study of defenses, like the study of stereotypes, is the study of the processes which protect the organization of conceptual systems in the face of information and experiences which, if accurately perceived, would tend to disconfirm, break down or change the relationships among concepts in the system.

Why should conceptual systems be resistant to change? Actually, if they were simply intellectual exercises, they probably would not. In real life, conceptual systems come to have value attached to them. The values seem to be of two kinds: one kind I will call competence value. By the competence value of a conceptual system I mean its value for helping us to be effective in the world. After all, the conceptual systems we have were developed because we needed some way of making sense of the world; of predicting what kinds of results would follow from what kinds of causes; of planning what kinds of actions we needed to take in order to accomplish some desired result.

People have the conceptual systems they have because in some important situations the systems proved adaptive for them; by seeing the world in just this way they were able to get along better, to be more effective, to prepare better for what was coming next. For human beings conceptual systems are, in a very real sense, very nearly the most important survival equipment we have. Animals have instinctual patterns of response: complex systems of behavior that are set off without thinking in response to fairly fixed patterns of stimulation. Humans have to do it the hard way, by developing systems of concepts that make sense of the world and then using these systems to make decisions as to what to do in each situation. Those conceptual systems that pay off over and over again tend to become parts of our permanent equipment for understanding the world and for deciding what to do in it. If we were to lose these systems we would become like ships without rudders; we would have lost our control systems and, with them, our chances of acting in an organized, intelligent fashion, to meet our needs. This is what I mean by the competence value of conceptual systems.

Unfortunately, no conceptual system fits the world perfectly. In the interests of economy we simplify and leave things out as being unimportant: for example, we act as though relationships which are statistical (they are only true most of the time) are necessary, and hence true all of the time. On the rare occasions when the relationships don't hold, we tend to overlook it, rather than trying to understand why things didn't go as expected. We may, for example, conceptualize the qualities of aggressiveness, toughness and masculinity as incompatible with a ready ability to ask for help and to accept warmth. This conceptual system may not change even in the face of an appeal for help on the part of a man about whose tough masculinity we have had ample evidence in the past.

We simply pass it off as, "He doesn't really want help," or, "He isn't himself today," or even, "Deep down inside he isn't really as tough as he looks; he's really a secret crybaby."

We go through a lot of mental gymnastics to avoid seriously questioning a conceptual system which has proven useful in the past. So, frequently, the last alternative explanation we consider is, "it is possible for a man to want and need help and support, and still be tough, aggressive and masculine." Such an alternative would mean the significant alteration of a conceptual system.

The trouble is, you can't just alter one little conceptual system at will, and let it go at that. Concepts are too closely and complexly linked to change one or two relationships in isolation. One change leads to another, and pretty soon a major reorganization is going on. It may be, of course, that the reorganization may lead to substantial improvement in the person's understanding and effectiveness in the world, but in the meantime there may be considerable turmoil and confusion as the person questions relationships that once seemed solidly established, and before new ways of seeing the world have been adequately tested and confirmed.

Of course, the more important the particular conceptual system in question is in making it possible for the person to meet his needs, the more strain and upset is involved in changing it. For example, one might believe that heavy objects fall more rapidly than light ones. The disconfirmation that would follow upon learning that all objects fall at the same rate would perhaps be uncomfortable, but only moderately so. Consider, on the other hand, the anxiety and stress which could be produced by the discovery that complying with another's demands does not always make the other like you and may, indeed, have the opposite effect. For a person who has put much reliance in their interpersonal relations on the techniques associated with such a conceptual system, its disconfirmation may have the dimensions of a major crisis in life.

So, much of the time we hang on to our not-so-accurate conceptual systems because they work for us most of the time, and to give them up would plunge us into mild or severe confusion without any real promise of eventually attaining a more accurate, effective reorganization. The picture does not look so good for improvement, and before I finish, it will look even bleaker.

There is another kind of valuing that goes on in placing events into conceptual systems, and I will call it evaluation. This is the well known process of saying that some states of affairs are better and some are worse. For most conceptual systems, there is an element of evaluation: most concepts have a good end and a bad end, and we would rather see events come out on the good ends than the bad.

Again, it is less important to see events come out well in some areas than in others. When we consider the conceptual system, "Red sky at night sailors' delight; Red sky in the morning, sailer take warning," we may indeed prefer that the weather come out on the "red at night - delight" end, rather than the "red morning - warning" side, but if on a given occasion it doesn't we don't ordinarily get too upset, nor do we feel responsible.

The closer we get to conceptual systems that are concerned with our self perceptions and our important relationships with others, the more important evaluation becomes, and the more uncomfortably responsible we feel when events don't fall on the valued ends of the concepts. Thus, if we value love as against hate, and intelligence against stupidity, it becomes important to protect conceptual systems that organize the events so we can see ourselves as brilliant and loving. When maintaining the valued perception becomes too important, people may desperately protect quite maladaptive, ineffective conceptual systems in order to maintain a favorable perception of self or others.

Sometimes, competence value and evaluation compete for influence on the conceptual system. For example, some persons have led such difficult childhoods that it is only by seeing themselves as bad, worthless people that they can seem to make sense out of the awful things that people they trusted have done to them; at the same time, they have normal needs for self esteem, and for seeing themselves at the valued ends of concepts. These people may experience considerable conflict between these two motivational influences on their conceptual systems.

These, then, are the "defenses." They serve to keep us from becoming confused, upset and rudderless every time something happens contrary to our expectations. Frequently, they protect our liking for ourselves and others when we and they fail to live up to our ideals. Defenses give life as it is experienced more stability and continuity than could ever be justified by reference to the contingency and complexity of real events alone. Defenses keep our relations with others more pleasant and satisfying, protecting us from our own and others' anger, and helping us to go on loving people who are usually less than perfect and sometimes less than human.

At the same time, these same defenses block our learning, often dooming us to make the same mistakes over and over again. They make us blind to faults of our own we could correct, as well as those we can do nothing about. Sometimes they make us turn the other cheek when a good clout in the nose would clear the air and establish a new and firmer footing for an honest relationship. They can, in extreme cases, make so many kinds of information dangerous to our conceptual systems that we narrow and constrict our experiences, our feelings, and our thoughts, becoming virtual prisoners of our own protection.

I believe there is in each of us a kind of counterforce which operates in the service of learning. Let's call it a need to know, or a drive toward competence. We are used to thinking about physiological needs, and we recognize there are probably social needs, such as needs for love, but we often overlook the need for competence and knowledge. Yet it is in operation all around us. We see it in the baby when he begins to explore as soon as he can crawl; we see it again in the "battle of the spoon," where the child actually gives up the certainty of getting the food in his mouth for the less effective but exciting experiment of "doing it himself." We see this need again as the adolescent struggles to carve out for himself a life that is uniquely his own; and we see it reflected in continuing efforts to understand and master the world as adults. People who read history for pleasure, who have creative hobbies, or who attend sensitivity training laboratories are all manifesting this drive to competence and knowledge.

The need to know is the enemy of comfort, stability and a placid existence. For its sake we may risk the discomfort of examining and revising our assumptions about groups and people; we may expose ourselves to the anxiety-provoking experience of "personal feedback," in which we often learn others do not see us quite as we see ourselves; we place ourselves in groups where we know in advance we will be confused, challenged, and occasionally scared. Some of us expose ourselves to such situations more than once; to me, there could be no more convincing proof that the need to know is frequently stronger than the desire to maintain the comfort and stability of accustomed conceptual systems.

The sensitivity training laboratory thus frequently becomes a battleground between our desires to increase our competence and understanding, and our defenses. In this battle, we tend to take the side of the need to know and, like partisans everywhere, we malign, attack and propagandize against the other side. Sometimes we forget that both sides are parts of a person, and that if either side destroys the other, the person loses a valuable part of himself. This is particularly true in the case of defenses. We know from clinical practice and, I think, from personal experience and logic, that when a person's first line of defense becomes untenable, he drops back to another one, a sort of "second string" defense. Unfortunately, since we usually put our best and most adaptive defenses out in front, the second string is apt to be even less effective and reality oriented than the first. To put it strongly, the destruction of defenses does not serve learning; instead, it increases the anxiety of the person that he will lose the more or less effective conceptual systems he has with which to understand and relate to the world, and he drops back to an even more desperate and perhaps unrealistic defense than the one destroyed. Though it may seem paradoxical,we cannot increase learning by destroying the defenses which block it.

What we can do is to create situations where people will not need to stay behind their defenses all the time. We can make it safe to sally forth from behind the moat, so to speak, secure in the knowledge that while we are exploring the countryside, no one will sneak in and burn the castle.

People need their defenses most when they are most under threat and pressure. To make a mistake or become confused or admit to oneself that the world, ourselves, and others are not quite what we thought they were means that while we are revising or building new conceptual systems will not be able to cope as well as before with the "slings and arrows" of a difficult situation. If we need every bit of competence we possess, we simply can't afford to give up conceptual systems which are tried but not perfect, in favor of exciting new ways of looking at things that are untested.

It is for this reason that I do not believe we can really begin to learn deeply from one another in a training group until we create relationships of mutual support, respect, and trust.

When we know that others will not place us in situations where we need every bit of our competence to cope with what is going on; when we know they will respect our own personal rate of growth and learning; when we know we have friends to help if we get into difficulties exploring new relationships, understandings and behavior; then we can begin to look hard at the inadequacies in our ways of making sense of the world. We can examine those "exceptions to the rule" that we've always half expected might prove the rule inadequate; we can afford to really explore why ways of behaving that used to work fine are for some reason not producing satisfactions for us the way they used to, or why they seem to work with some people but not others; and we can really listen to the things people say that indicate they don't see us quite the way we see ourselves.

Out of this kind of exploration can come new and more effective conceptual systems, new ways of behaving that go along with them, and the excitement and pride that accompany increases in competence and knowledge. And when the excitement is over, the new ways have been tested and integrated and have become habitual ways of seeing and behaving, I hope we will not be surprised to find that under conditions of stress we defend them against new learning just as strongly as we did the old. For these two partners go hand in hand: the need to explore and learn and the defenses against disconfirmation and confusion. We need them both; the challenge is to know how we can create conditions under which we can suspend one to enhance the other.

ON SELF-ACTUALIZATION

(These notes are excerpted from Abraham H. Maslow's "Notes on Unstructured Groups at Lake Arrowhead" following his observations of a T Group in 1964. The notes were dictated into a tape recorder and then mimeographed without editing for informal distribution.)

Notes on Self-Esteem in the Work Situation

If we expand and enrich our understanding of the self-esteem level of motivation, then I think we can clarify and crystallize much which is only half conscious or groping in the management literature. Everybody seems to be aware at some level of consciousness of the fact that authoritarian management outrages the dignity of the worker. He then fights back in order to restore his dignity and self-esteem, actively with hostility and vandalism and the like, or passively as a slave does, with all sorts of underhanded, sly and secretly vicious counter measures. These reactions are puzzling generally to the dominator, but on the whole they are easily enough understood, and they make a very real psychological sense, if they are understood as attempts to maintain one's dignity under conditions of domination or of disrespect.

Now one approach to this is to pick out all the words from the literature, generally from the remarks of the dominated people about the way in which they view their own situation negatively. That is, it is like asking what is it they dislike, what are they avoiding, what makes them feel a loss of self-esteem.

Human Beings Avoid

being manipulated
dominated
pushed around
determined by others
to be misunderstood

To Be a Nothing (Rather than a Something)

unappreciated
not respected
not feared
not taken seriously
laughed at

A ludicrous Figure; Regulated by Others (Like an Object), to be treated like a physical object rather than like a person; to be rubricized like an example rather than as unique

give orders
forced
used, exploited, raped
controlled
helpless
compliant
deferent
an interchangeable man

What they are seeking for positively is

to be a prime mover
self determination
to have control over one's own fate
to determine one's movements
to be able to plan and carry out and to succeed
to expect success
to like responsibility or at any rate to assume it willingly, especially for one's self
to be active rather than passive
to be a person rather than a thing
to experience oneself as the maker of one's own decisions

autonomy
initiative
self starting
to have others acknowledge our capabilities fairly.

It should be very clear in the final write-up here about the difference between the need for esteem, and the need for self-esteem. Make the differentiation very sharply and very clearly and unmistakably. Reputation or prestige or applause are certainly very nice, and are for children and adolescents even absolutely necessary before real self-esteem can be built up. Or to say it the other way about, one of the necessary foundations for self-esteem is respect and applause from other people especially in the younger years. Ultimately real self-esteem rests upon all the things mentioned above, on a feeling of dignity, of controlling one's own life and being one's own boss. (Let's call this "dignity.") And then work out more carefully the interrelationship between dignity and self-esteem and the whole topic of real achievement, real skill, real mastery (by contrast with applause that may be undeserved). One has to deserve applause, prestige, medals and fame, or at very deep unconscious levels, they can be actually hurtful and produce guilt, and all sorts of psychopathogenic processes may start from undeserved applause.

Also I think it will be extremely instructive to many people to expand considerably on the ways in which outraged dignity protects itself. Look up again John Dollard's Caste and Class in a Southern Town, and other materials in which it is shown how the Negro stepped upon and submerged, not being able to fight back physically, forced to swallow his rage, can yet strike back in all sorts of passive ways which can be very effective. For instance, expand on the notion of pseudo stupidity (and then pick out parallels in the industrial situation). The same for lethargy and laziness. The same for impulse freedom (which can be not only a form of self-assertion, but also a means of striking back at the oppressor). Do the same for the ways in which slaves, exploited people, oppressed minorities and so on will fight back by fooling the oppressor secretly and then laughing at him; this too is a kind of retaliation whose psychodynamics rests in the need for self-esteem. The same for passivity. I think I can use in this context some of the examples that I've used in my Need to Know and the Fear of Knowing. Also perhaps it would be desirable to pluck out of my paper on Parallels between Monkeys and Therapeutic Patients all of the ways in which dominance produces certain kinds of subordination responses in a sexualized form. I think if we could teach managers and supervisors, not to mention professors of business management and industrial consultants and so on, that so many of these responses in workers, responses which they despise, which produce anger, may have been made by the worker just in order to produce that anger; maybe that was the purpose of it; maybe it was a striking back. In any case if these psychodynamics are more readily recognized, then they can be taken for the valuable indicators that they are, just the way in which a thermometer is very useful as an indicator of fever and of hidden sickness someplace. When these passive and sneaky and underhanded and behind-the-back retaliations come, they come out of anger, anger generally about being exploited or dominated or being treated in an undignified way.

Notes on Creativeness

We can learn from the T-group experiences about the prerequisite necessity for creativeness of the ability to withstand the lack of structure, the lack of future, predictability, of control, the tolerance for ambiguity, for planlessness.

"Here-now" creativeness is dependent on this kind of ability to forget about the future, to improvise in the present, to give full attention to the present, e.g. to be able fully to listen or to observe.

This general ability to give up future, structure, to give up control and predictability is also characteristic of loafing, or of the ability to enjoy, to say it in another way, which itself is also essentially unmotivated, purposeless, without goal, and therefore without future. That is to say in order to be able to listen totally, in order to be able to immerse oneself, to be all there in the here-now, one must be able to give up the future in the sense of being able to enjoy, to loaf, to saunter instead of purposefully walking, to take one's ease, in a word -- to play.

Make a note also that the self-actualizing subjects enjoy mystery, futurelessness, ambiguity, lack of structure. They can be contrasted with Kurt Goldstein's brain-injured subjects as well as with the obsessional neurosis (and also with a certain type of scientist) in which there is such a tremendous and compulsive and uncontrollable need for control, for prediction, for structure, for law and order, for an agenda and a schedule, for classifying, for rehearsing, for planning. In a word, it is as if these people were afraid of the future, and also mistrusted their own ability to improvise in the face of an emergency, of something that would come up unexpectedly. This is then a combination of a lack of trust in oneself, a kind of fear that one does not have the ability or the capacity to face anything which is unexpected, which is not planned for, which is not controllable and predictable and so on. Give the examples here of the geometrizing of time and space of the brain-injured people. I think I can also use my article, "Emotional Blocks to Creativity" for good obsessional examples.

Point out that these are all safety mechanisms, all are fear and anxiety mechanisms. They all represent lack of courage, lack of confidence in the future, lack of confidence in oneself. It takes a certain kind of courage, which is simultaneously a kind of trust in oneself and a trust in the goodness of the environment and of the future, to be able to face an unexpected, an unknown unstructured situation without any guards or defenses, and with an innocent faith that one can improvise in the situation. Perhaps for communication purposes some simpler examples may be necessary, for instance like pointing out to an audience how commonly in a conversation when the other person is talking, they are not really listening but are rather planning and rehearsing what they are going to say as a response. Then point out how this means lack of confidence in their ability to improvise, that is, to think up words to say without preparing beforehand, without planning.

I think another good example might be actual motion pictures of the way in which a little toddler or perhaps an infant shows in actual behavior total trust in the mother or the father. Get pictures of a kid jumping off a height into his father's arms with total fearlessness and total trust. Or into a swimming pool.

I think that it would be useful to add this to my discussion of safety science contrasted with growth science or self-actualizing science. Compare with Kurt Goldstein's brain-injured patients and with the symptoms of the obsessional neurotics, let's say in a parallel column, B. F. Skinner's stress again and again and again in his lectures and written papers on predictability, on control, lawfulness, structure, etc. And then make an actual count of how infrequently the words creativeness occur, improvising, spontaneity, expressiveness, autonomy, and the like. Then do the same for Carl Rogers or for other writers. It occurs to me that this would make a very nice experiment, that even an undergraduate student could do easily enough. I think I'll try. It would make the point I'm trying to make very neatly and easily and unmistakably. In any case this would also make the parallel with two kinds of psychopathology and at the very least, dramatize the point that I am trying to make that these words may be psychopathological. (Of course it's also necessary to stress that they can be quite healthy. But then the question is how to make the differentiation between neurotic need for predictability and the normal pleasure in predictability, control, lawfulness, orderliness in the world, and so on.)

I guess here it would be useful, especially for the laymen, to make a little discussion of just what the differences are between the neurotic needs and normal or healthy needs. At the moment I can think of the fact that the neurotic needs are uncontrollable, inflexible, compulsive, irrational, independent of good or bad circumstances, that their gratification does not bring real pleasure but only momentary relief, that their frustration brings very quickly tension, anxiety, and finally hostility and anger. Furthermore, they are ego dystonic rather than ego syntonic, that is, they are felt as alien or as something overcoming from within desires or impulses. The neurotic person is apt to say, "Something comes over me," or "I have no control over it."

Run through all of this creativeness stuff and apply it to the managerial situation, the leadership and followship situation. In every discussion about these things in any enterprise of any kind whatsoever, there is certainly going to come up from those who need more structure, whether for good reasons or for bad reasons, the questions about anarchy and chaos and the like, and it is necessary to meet these not only on a rational level but also to understand them as possibly neurotic or irrational or deeply emotional. Sometimes the proper way to handle this is not to argue logically but to interpret psychoanalytically. It's very easy to point out without too much offense in such groupings that this demand for a set of laws and rules and principles which are all written down in the book that this is a demand for controlling the future and for anticipating anything that might come up in the future. Since this latter is realistically impossible, that is, since the future is after all unpredictable to some extent, then trying to make a "book of rules" which will anticipate any possible contingency in the future is a futile effort and then one can go on to ask why can't we trust ourselves to be able to handle these unexpected contingencies in the future? Why must we prepare for them so? Can't we handle exceptions; don't we trust ourselves to have good judgment, even in an unanticipated situation? Why can't we wait until we have experiences piling up in the situations and then make whatever rules are necessary as a kind of formulation of actual experience in the actual situation. In this way one comes to a minimum of rules rather than to a maximum of rules. (But it may be necessary to concede, as I have had to do in the past, that in extremely large organizations like the army and the navy where the population is unselected, and so has large proportions of such people in it, that a "book of rules" _is_ necessary, just the way a constitution or set of laws is necessary for the unselected population of a whole country.)

WHAT TO OBSERVE IN A GROUP

One way to learn in a lab is to observe and analyze what is happening in one's T Group. All of us have spent our lives in groups of various sorts -- the family, gang, team, work group, etc., but rarely have we taken the time to stop and observe what was going on in the group, or why the members were behaving the way they were. One of our main goals here is to become better observers and better participants.

But what do we look for? What is there to see in a group?

I. Content vs. Process

When we observe what the group is talking about, we are focusing on the content. When we try to observe how the group is handling its communication, i.e., who talks how much or who talks to whom, we are focusing on group process.

Most topics about the back-home situation emphasize the content -- "what is good leadership," "how can I motivate my subordinate," "how can we make meetings more effective," and concern issues which are "there and then" in the sense of being abstract, future or past oriented and not involving us directly. In focusing on group process, we are looking at what our group is doing in the "here and now," how it is working in the sense of its present procedures and organization.

In fact, the content of the conversation is often the best clue as to what process issue may be on people's minds, when they find it difficult to confront the issue directly. For example:

Content	Process
1. Talking about problems of authority back home may mean	that there is a leadership struggle going on in the T Group
2. Talking about how bad group meetings usually are at the plant may mean	that members are dissatisfied with the performance of their own T Group
3. Talking about staff men who don;t really help anybody may mean	dissatisfaction with the trainer's role in the group.

At a simpler level looking at process really means to focus on what is going on in the group and trying to understand it in terms of other things that have gone on in the group.

II. Communication

One of the easiest aspects of group process to observe is the pattern of communication:

1. Who talks? For how long? How often?
2. Who do people look at when they talk?
    a. Single others, possibly potential supporters
    b. Scanning the group
    c. No one.
3. Who talks after whom, or who interrupts whom?
4. What style of communication is used (assertions, questions, tone of voice, gestures, etc.)?

The kinds of observations we make give us clues to other important things which may be going on in the group such as who leads whom or who influences whom.

III. Decision-Making Procedures

Whether we are aware of it or not, groups are making decisions all the time, some of them consciously and in reference to the major tasks at hand, some of them without much awareness and in reference to group procedures or standards of operation. It is important to observe how decisions are made in a group in order to assess the appropriateness of the decision to the matter being decided on, and in order to assess whether the consequences of given methods are really what the group members bargained for.

Group decisions are notoriously hard to undo. When someone says, "Well, we decided to do it, didn't we?" any budding opposition is quickly immobilized. We can only undo the decision if we reconstruct it and understand how we made it and test whether this method was appropriate or not.

Some methods by which groups make decisions:

1. The Plop: "I think we should introduce ourselves" .... silence
2. The Self-Authorized Agenda: "I think we should introduce ourselves, my name is Joe Smith ...."
3. The Handclasp: "I wonder if it would be helpful if we introduced ourselves?" "I think it would, my name is Pete Jones ...."
4. "Does anyone object?" or "we all agree."
5. Majority-Minority voting.
6. Polling: "Let's see where everyone stands, what do you think?"

7. Consensus Testing: Genuine exploration to test for opposition and to determine whether opposition feels strongly enough not to be willing to implement decision; not necessarily unanimity, but essential agreement by all.

IV. Task - Maintenance - Self-oriented behavior

Behavior in the group can be viewed from the point of view of what its purpose or function seems to be. When a member says something, is he primarily trying to get the group task accomplished (task), or is he trying to improve or patch up some relationships among members (maintenance), or is he primarily meeting some personal need or goal without regard to the group's problems (self-oriented)?

As the group grows and member needs become integrated with group goals, there will be less self-oriented behavior and more task or maintenance behavior. What kinds of categories can we identify?

Types of behavior relevant to the group's fulfillment of its task:

1. Initiating: Proposing tasks or goals; defining a group problem; suggesting a procedure or ideas for solving a problem...

2. Seeking information or opinions: Requesting facts; seeking relevant information about group concern... Asking for expressions of feeling; requesting a statement or estimate; soliciting expressions of value; seeking suggestions and ideas...

3. Giving information or opinion: Offering facts; providing relevant information about group concern...
Stating a belief about a matter before the group; giving suggestions and ideas.

4. Clarifying and Elaborating: Interpreting ideas or suggestions; clearing up confusions; defining terms; indicating alternatives and issues before the group...

5. Summarizing: Pulling together related ideas; restating suggestions after the group has discussed them; offering a decision or conclusion for the group to accept or reject...

6. Consensus Testing: Asking to see if group is nearing a decision; sending up trial balloon to test a possible conclusion...

Types of behavior relevant to the group's remaining in good working order, having a good climate for task work, and good relationships which permit maximum use of member resources, i.e., group maintenance:

1. Harmonizing: Attempting to reconcile disagreements; reducing tension; getting people to explore differences...

2. Gate Keeping: Helping to keep communication channels open; facilitating the participation of others; suggesting procedures that permit sharing remarks.

3. Encouraging: Being friendly, warm, and responsive to others; indicating by facial expression or remark the acceptance of others' contributions...

4. Compromising: When own idea or status is involved in a conflict, offering a compromise which yields status; admitting error; modifying in interest of group cohesion or growth...

5. Standard Setting and Testing: Testing whether group is satisfied with its procedures or suggesting procedures, pointing out explicit or implicit norms which have been set to make them available for testing...

Every group needs both kinds of behavior and needs to work out an adequate balance of task and maintenance activities.

V. Emotional Issues; Causes of Self-Oriented Emotional Behavior

The processes described so far deal with the group's attempts to work, to solve problems of task and maintenance, but there are many forces active in groups which disturb work, which represent a kind of emotional underworld or under-current in the stream of group life. These underlying emotional issues produce a variety of emotional behaviors which interfere with or are destructive of effective group functioning. They cannot be ignored or wished away, however. Rather, they must be recognized, their causes must be understood, and as the group develops, conditions must be created which permit these same emotional energies to be channeled in the direction of group effort.

What are these issues or basic causes?

1. The problem of identity: Who am I in this group? Where do I fit in? What kind of behavior is acceptable here?

2. The problem of goals and needs: What do I want from the group? Can the group goals be made consistent with my goals? What have I to offer to the group?

3. The problem of power, control, and influence: Who will control what we do? How much power and influence do I have?

4. The problem of intimacy: How close will we get to each other? How personal? How much can we trust each other and how can we achieve a greater level of trust?

What kinds of behaviors are produced in response to these problems?

1. Dependency-counterdependency: Leaning on or resisting anyone in the group who represents authority, especially the trainer.

2. Fighting and Controlling: Asserting personal dominance, attempting to get own way regardless of others.

3. Withdrawing: Trying to remove the sources of uncomfortable feelings by psychologically leaving the group.

4. Pairing up: Seeking out one or two supporters and forming a kind of emotional sub-group in which the members protect and support each other.

These are not the only kinds of things which can be observed in a group. What is important to observe will vary with what the group is doing, the needs of the observer and his purposes, and many other factors. The main point, however, is that improving our skills in observing what is going on in the group will provide us with important data for understanding groups and increasing our effectiveness within them.

COMMUNICATION

Human communication in a face-to-face situation is almost always complex and frequently interactional. The complexities of motivation and behavior of the sender meets the equal complexities of perception and motivation of the receiver. A variety of impressions or messages are sent or received in any effort toward communication, and frequently considerable interaction among the persons involved is necessary for effective communication to take place.

It is important in examining face-to-face communication to recognize some of the forces present in the interpersonal or group situation affecting communication.

Groups, and interpersonal relations of any duration, face the continued joint problems of carrying out the purpose or task of the group and of maintaining the group, or interpersonal relationship, in good working order. If, for example, communication is poor within the group, there is no effective way of working together; if there is no agreed-upon procedure, or if competition between members or with the leader is present, little effective work will be accomplished.

Thus the group must be aware of, and working upon, problems of task completion and group maintenance at all times. This can be thought of as two levels of concern that interactively affect each other.

Task Level__________________________

Maintenance Level____________________

Equally, levels of work-emotionality need to be recognized. Feelings are an integral part of all thoughts and behavior. The feeling the group members have about the work they are doing obviously affects the extent and quality of work. Therefore, leader and members need constantly to be aware of emotional factors and their impact upon behavior and production. A second set of levels need to be seen:

Work Level__________________________

Emotional Level______________________

A third way of looking at the complexities of a group or interpersonal situation is to realize that there are a large variety of group and individual purposes always present. Frequently it is helpful to recognize that there is a recognized level of surface tasks and a recognized level of covered tasks or purposes. A variety of individual and group purposes, feelings, needs, while not openly recognized as the concern of the group, are nevertheless just as effective in determining what happens in the group as the surface task.

Thus a third set of levels are:

Surface Agenda______________________

Hidden Agenda_______________________

It is in the midst of this complex of levels that communication takes place.

Communication is not merely by words alone. Tone of voice, choice of words, bodily posture all communicate a variety of messages. Two persons may say, "Good morning" to each other and convey a number of messages. One "Good morning" may indicate supplication, awareness of subordinate status, anxiety as to how the greeting will be received. The other may convey condescension, awareness of power of position, rejection, hostility.

Communication results from complex motivational systems on the part of both parties. Therefore it is important to recognize certain factors of motivation and behavior.

All behavior is motivated - It is not accidental. It would be nice to think that slips of the tongue, misplaced humor, etc., were entirely accidental. In reality all of our actions - verbal and non-verbal - are motivated at some level of our motivational system.

There are multiple causes for our behavior. Frequently we seek a single, simple cause to understand the behavior and communication of the other, when, in reality, a variety of causes are inevitably present. In fact, behavior results from a variety of forces operating in a number of directions in the total life space in which each exists.

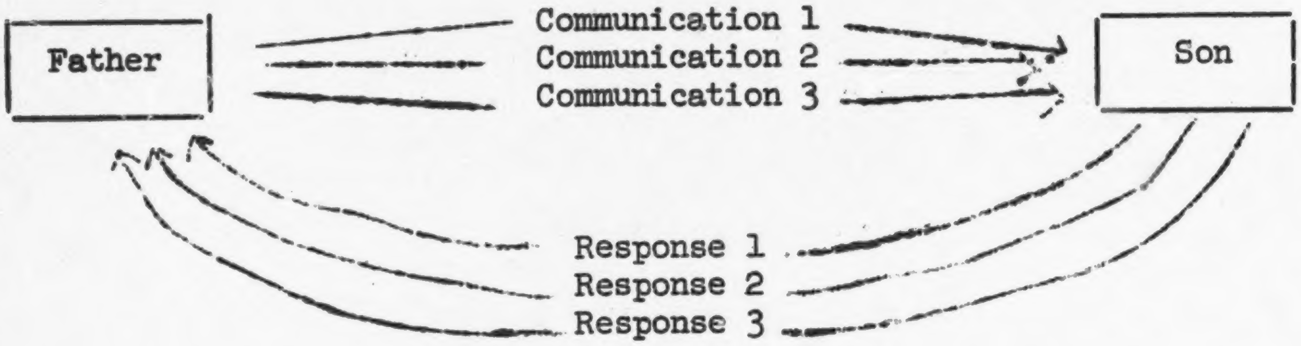
In communication there are not only a variety of complex motivations on the part of the communicator and a variety of messages communicated by him at each moment, but the receiver of the communications "hears" the communication with an equally complex motivational system. Each of us has a perceptual screen or filter through which we perceive the behavior of others. We "hear" what we want to hear, either laudatory or critical. Thus the complexity of both sending and receiving sets make communication a difficult human act. Of the many messages the individual may communicate, many of which he is unaware, he cannot know which are received by the other, or whether the perceptual screen of the other distorts the message he attempted to convey.

Each of us is concerned with developing and maintaining our self-image. Communications that are "heard" as threatening our image of ourselves and the image we wish others to have are responded to by defensive or aggressive reactions, even though the sender was not consciously aware that he was threatening the self-image of the other. As a result neither listens to the other or responds to the image from which the other speaks. Both talk past each other. For example, father, who has a sixteen-year old son, seeks himself as a responsible parent concerned with bringing up a son who will be a good man (who doesn't get in trouble). Father wants to have others see him as a concerned and responsible parent. In addition, he sees himself as a good citizen. He is concerned with what the community thinks of him. The behavior of his son is a reflection on him as he sees it.

Son, on the other hand, perceives, or wishes to perceive himself and be perceived by others, as a mature person competent to handle all situations facing him. He perceives that most adults try to reduce him to childhood and fail to recognize his manhood.

The situation is as follows:

Son has taken the family car out the night before and didn't return until 3:00 a.m. when he was expected at midnight. Father was both worried about present safety and the implication of the act in terms of his perception of how he wants his son to act. Let us imagine the scene which takes place:



Father: (In an aggressive tone) "Son, where did you go last night?" (Spoken out of his perception of justified anger at the irresponsibility of the son)

Son: (Hearing father's opening statement as an attack on his manhood and ability to take responsibility for himself) "Out, where did you think?"

Father: (Hearing son's response as further evidence of insipient delinquency and breakdown of his ability to influence son) "Young man, don't talk to me in that tone of voice."

Son: (Hearing the second communication as a further effort to reduce his status, responds) "Aw, you're always picking on me anyway."

Father: (Continuing) "If you're not more obedient, you can't have the car for the next month."

Son: (Perceiving the imposition of force, responds by going out and slamming the door).

Neither father nor son communicated with each other because neither was aware of the self-image of the other or the position from which the other spoke. Too many communications are of this kind.

Behavioral Communication

We communicate by our behavior as well as by our words alone. Our behavior results from our perception of our own needs to relate to other people and to what we perceive about the actions of others. Following are a few typical forms of behavior all of us engage in from time to time. Frequently we are not aware of the extent to which our pattern of behavior is coming through to others.

Fighting with others tends to appear in several guises: in humor, in debate and argument, in semantic quibbling, in strategy and counter-strategy. With social growth people tend to refine ways of fighting and to compete in various subtle forms of humor and debate. Debate tends to lead to polarization and counter-debate, is the converse of problem-solving. Parliamentary procedure provides a convenient structure for socialized fighting.

We all have needs to control and influence others. We may wish to make friends in order to influence people. Advertising, propaganda, guidance, education, persuasion, management, manipulation are variously colored ways of describing our efforts to control the lives of others, to get them to do something that is good for us or that we think is good for them. When we give advice, offer up another group member as a candidate for a group role, "bring out a silent member," we are trying to control their behavior.

We all have needs at times to punish others, feel good when others are punished, and have various and sundry subtle ways of disguising to ourselves and others our needs to hurt others. Setting up a leader for the kill, talking through another's remark, using a remark for "innocent" humor, encouraging a silent member to talk - all are methods which may or may not be motivated by needs to punish, and may or may not be so perceived.

It is necessary for all of us to withdraw at times. We may become umpire to get out of the game, volunteer for an observer or secretarial role, sulk, listen, daydream, or take other ways of getting out of active verbal interaction with others. Withdrawal may be seen as resentment, ignorance, apathy or veiled attack.

Most of us need at times to seek support, need occasional or frequent reassurance that others respect us, love us, or accept us. Some of us try to keep others at a comfortable effective distance (withdrawal), others of us seek to maintain intimacy with a wide variety of people.

Accepting: Few of us are as accepting of people as we might well be. Liking a person is not necessarily accepting him. Accepting someone does not necessarily mean liking him. Accepting a person means essentially recognizing in him, as another human being, strong needs, feelings, purposes, and one who should be listened to and understood so that effective relations can be established. Acceptance of a person should be the prelude to listening to him and to endeavoring to be helpful.

Listening: It is difficult to really listen. Most of us listen only partially to the other. Consequently we make assumptions about his communication that are often inadequate. Listening takes the concentration necessary to try to perceive the various communication levels present and the various feelings and needs within the individual.

The important thing is to learn to be more aware of our own behavior and its consequences on others. As we do become aware, we can often find more effective ways of relating to people.

Circular Process

The attached diagram illustrates what occurs when an individual acts and interacts with others in a group.

We could think of this as a step-by-step process as follows:

1. The individual has some feelings about himself (his self-image) and has a set of attitudes toward the others with whom he wishes to interact.

2. These feelings and attitudes become intentions toward the others. For example, if his feelings are that his ideas are wanted and appreciated, and if his attitudes toward others are that he would like to make a contribution, we can predict that he will have the intention of making positive contributions in a group situation.

3. These intentions cause our individual to initiate some behavior toward the others in the group. His behavior is governed by

    a. his intentions, and

    b. his past responses to behavior from the other people. We might think of this whole phase of the process as leading up to BEHAVIOR OUTPUT.

4. The behavior which is put out then passes through a screen which exists in the others. This screen includes their value systems, expectations of how he should behave in this situation, and experience with how he has behaved in similar situations.

5. The behavior which the individual has put out is then evaluated by the others in terms of these expectations, which tends to either support the expectations or to vary from them.

6. As a result of this evaluation, the members develop some intentions toward the individual.

7. These intentions again serve to motivate their behavior back to the individual, and so they initiate some behavior.

    This whole phase might be called the BEHAVIOR INPUT.

8. This behavior goes through a screen which the individual has, that is, his feelings about himself and his attitudes (the ones he started with), and he receives feedback which either supports or modifies his expectations.

This apparently abstract and complex process can perhaps be simplified through an illustration. Let us suppose we are talking about member "X" in a group. He is a secure person, sees himself as effective in his relations with others, and feels warmly toward others. His intentions, based on this combination of feelings and attitudes, are to impress his ideas, to cooperate and to be quite active in a group. His behavior output then is active and friendly.

This behavior output is perceived by others as warm, friendly, competent, cooperative. Given these perceptions of member "X", the intentions of other members toward him are friendly, respecting his opinions, seeking his ideas, and being generally willing to accept his influence attempts.

These intentions again show themselves in the behavior of other members toward him.

He perceives this behavior of other members through his screen as telling him that he is liked and accepted and that he is satisfying his needs to be respected and influential. In other words, the feedback confirms his initial image. So he continues to produce similar types of intentions and behavior.

This person is likely to maintain quite high status in a group and so be in a position of leadership.

Perhaps of more interest to us is what happens with people who don't have this initial image. For example, if a person sees himself as quite inadequate, and his attitudes toward others are that they see him this way also, his intentions are likely to be cautious, which will produce very low behavior output in a group.

This low behavior output may well be perceived by others as somewhat neutral, neither friendly nor unfriendly, and, therefore, it tends to produce very few intentions to behavior toward him. Operationally this means that very little behavior is addressed to him.

Because of this, such a member is likely to read this relative ignoring as a confirmation of his own low evaluation of himself. This tends to reinforce his behavior pattern of withdrawal.

A third type of illustration would be where a person feels he is quite adequate, but that others tend to be unfriendly and competitive toward him. This produces intentions to keep them from blocking him, and to compete or to get his way in spite of their attitudes.

Expressed in behavior, such a person is likely to be very active. He probably initiates many ideas and probably reacts critically to others.

If this behavior is received, it probably makes others feel irritated and makes them tend to reject his ideas even when they're good. This produces intentions to either reject or resist him.

The behavior toward him then is either to ignore him or to fight him.

He perceives this behavior as a confirmation of his initial attitudes, and so the circle starts again.

To effect change in such a situation, there are several alternative ways of initiating action.

A. We can help the individual take a longer look at his own feelings about himself and his own attitudes. Perhaps his initial image that others distrust him is the place where some help can be given.

B. Another starting point or leverage point for changing the situation would be at the point of the individual's behavior. By helping a person explore his own behavior and perhaps giving him some new feedback, he might be helped to consciously attempt to try new behavior.

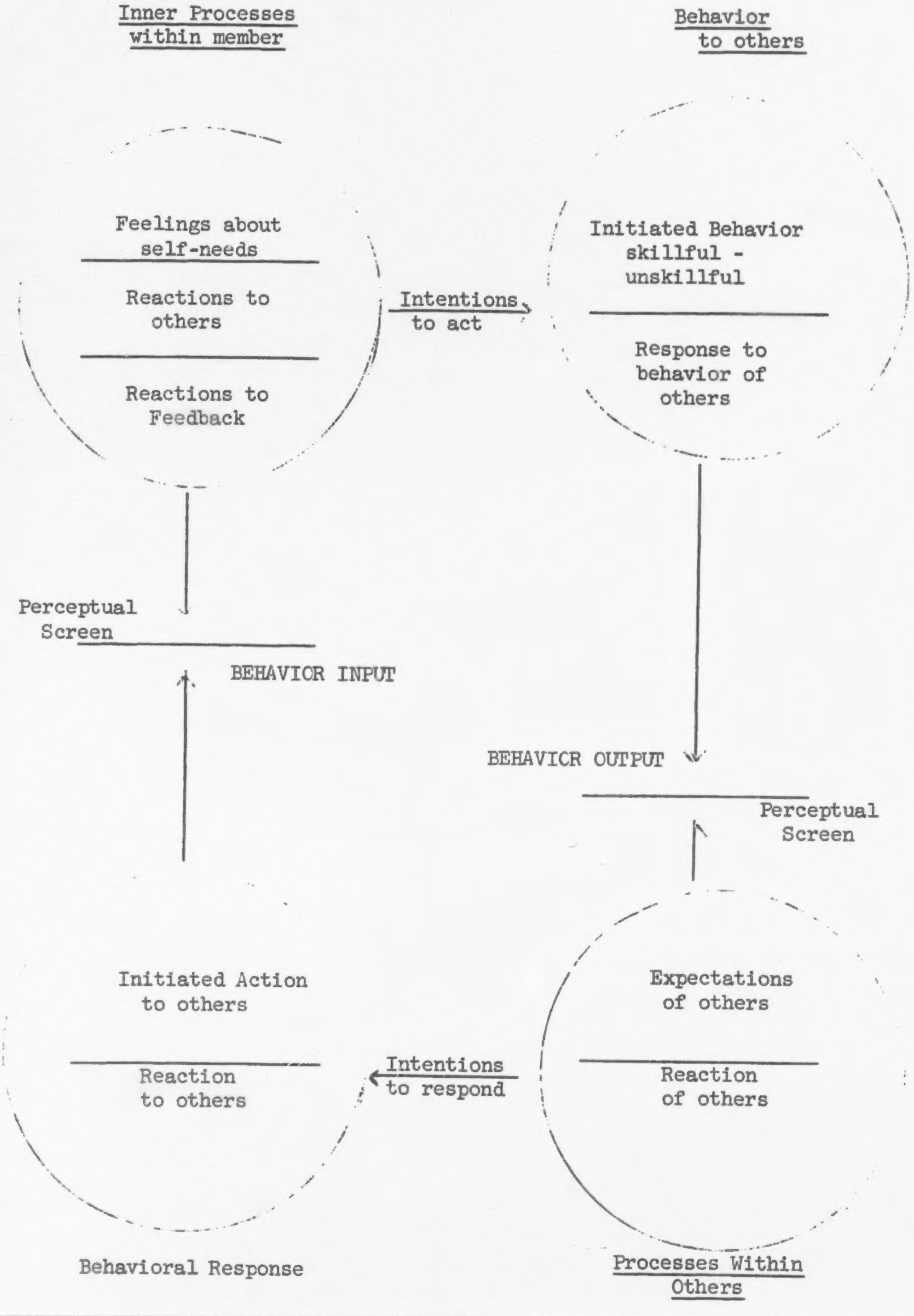
C. A third point might be to have the people who are reacting to an individual explore the basis for their own reactions and evaluations. Perhaps they are jumping to conclusions and pre-evaluating, which means they are probably not listening to his contributions. If this could be changed, perhaps the whole process would be improved.

D. A fourth point is to establish some change in the behavior of others toward the individual so that the feedback he gets helps him to correct his own images and behavior.

The executive who wishes to improve his interaction with his staff and his organization needs to be aware of his own behavior systems, that is, the processes within himself and the situation in which he finds himself, which includes the attitudes and expectations of others.

With this information, it is possible to determine an initial point for introducing change into the situation through determining where the most effective leverage point would be.

THE CIRCULAR PROCESS OF SOCIAL INTERACTION


Inner Processes within member
Behavior to others
Feelings about self-needs
Reactions to others
Reactions to Feedback
Intentions to act
Initiated Behavior skillful - unskillful
Response to behavior of others
Perceptual Screen
BEHAVIOR INPUT
BEHAVIOR OUTPUT
Perceptual Screen
Initiated Action to others
Reaction to others
Intentions to respond
Expectations of others
Reaction of others
Behavioral Response
Processes Within Others

DILEMMAS OF LEADERSHIP

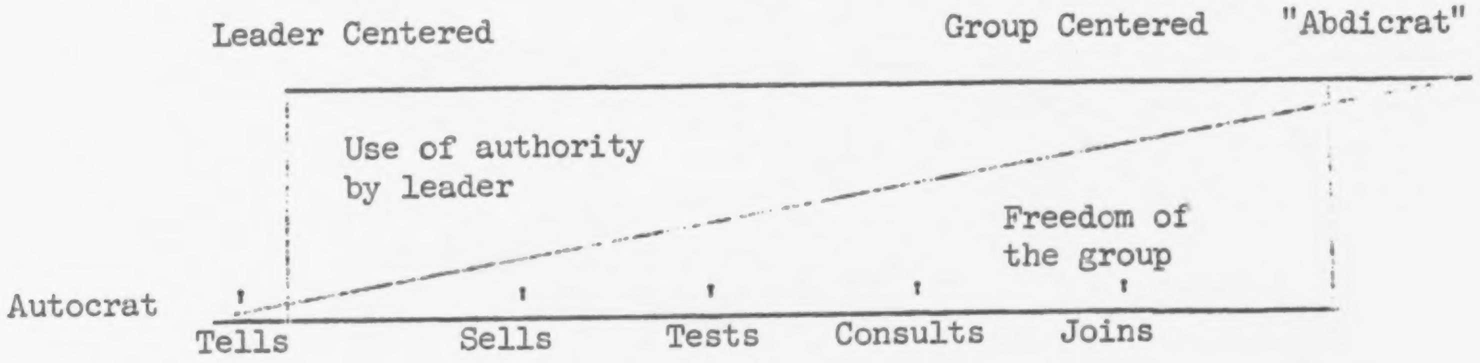
I. Our basic dilemma may be a discrepancy between what we believe to be right and desirable and what we do in practice. Maybe we express this as -

How democratic can I be?
How authoritarian must I be?

We face a series of dilemmas -

We have a tradition of competition.	but	We must be cooperative.
We are under pressure to get the job done - to be efficient.	but	We believe all points of view must be heard.
We are pushed for time.	but	We want participative decision-making and this takes time.
We see opportunities for quick results in one-man decisions.	but	We believe shared responsibility makes for better and longer lasting solutions (and we believe in educational process).

II. We can look at the dilemmas in terms of a continuum developed by Warren Schmidt and Robert Tannenbaum of California.



If we extend the continuum at either extreme we get autocracy or abdication. The autocrat violates our traditional values and our self image as people who are open and sensitive. The abdicrat is irresponsible and violates concepts of leadership which gets work done.

III. How do I decide where I stand on the continuum?

Answer found in these factors:

1. Forces in me including my motives and needs and my assumptions about people (colleagues, subordinates, superiors, peers)

I would have to look at -
- My value system
- My confidence in the group - my assumptions about people
- My leadership inclinations
- My feelings of security - and my "tolerance for ambiguity"
- My own motives as related to my own needs I am satisfying

2. Forces in the group including my understanding of members' needs, motives, perceptions

I would have to look at -
- Their needs for independence or dependence
- Their readiness to assume responsibility
- Their tolerance for ambiguity
- Their interest in the problem
- Their understanding of goals - and their role in formulating them
- Their knowledge and experience and skill in the particular task (and means of increasing these)
- Their expectations

And also the effect on the group of my own assumptions about them, their motives, their needs

3. Forces in the situation

I would have to look at -
- Type of organization
- Effectiveness of the group
- Pressure of time
- Consequences of action

And also the perception I have and the group has of the task

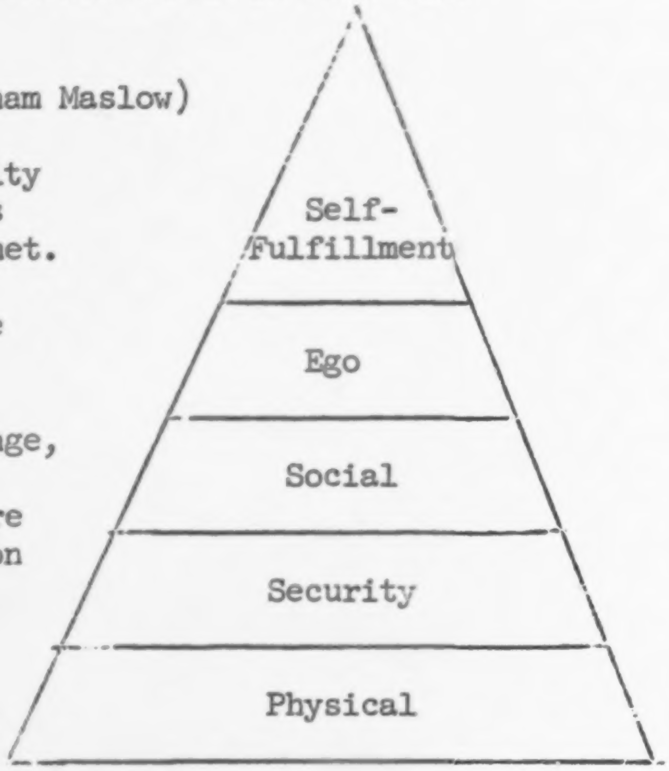
IV. Two factors of special importance:

1. Hierarchy of needs motivating me, my colleagues, and those we work with

2. Assumptions I make about my colleagues and those we work with

Hierarchy of needs (as outlined by Abraham Maslow)

Hierarchy of needs syggests difficulty of considering higher order of needs until the basic survival needs are met. Self expression and fulfillment are probably not motivating needs to the person with an empty belly and no roof over his family's head and no protection from attack. It is strange, however, that in our own highly developed society where basic needs are generally met, we continue to rely on these needs to motivate action and participation.



A need satisfied no longer motivates. Our perception of what people need colors our assumptions about human behavior.

Assumptions about People - theory about human behavior

Douglas McGregor in The Human Side of Enterprise has developed two theories to explain human behavior.
Essentially, theory X builds on the lower order of human needs. Theory Y assumes that, once met, these no longer motivate. It builds on the higher order of needs.

Human behavior is based on theory -- we do A because we theorize it will produce B. It is important that the leader examine his assumptions - his theory - about what makes people behave as they do. His assumptions reflect his value system and determine his practices and how he organizes for decision making and action.

It may be useful to check our own assumptions against the following sets of assumptions.

Theory X -

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
2. Because of the human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all.

Theory Y

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is related to the rewards associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational objectives is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

The need is not so much to choose up sides as to which theory is "right" but to make our assumptions about human behavior more explicit and to check how well our own behavior reflects our assumptions. Theory Y is more dynamic than X, more optimistic about the possibility for human growth and development, more concerned with self-direction and self-responsibility, more consistent with available social science knowledge.

Theory X or Theory Y would influence how we organize for decision making and action. If we accept Theory X, then it would make sense to have -

One way communication
Strategy planning by the top leaders only
Decision-making at the top level only
A handing down of decisions to be implemented by middle management
A handing down of instructions to be carried out by the workers
(Nothing goes up except reports)

Theory Y would make it worthwhile to have -

Two-way communication
Involvement in goal setting, planning, and decision making at each level

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF HUMAN CONFLICT

Were I to ask you to associate freely to the word "conflict," I predict I would receive three kinds of responses. One set of terms would have grisly and negative connotations -- "war," "death," "destruction," "disorder," "aggression," "violence," "rape." A second set of terms would have positive connotations -- "adventure," "opportunity," "drama," "fun," "excitement," "development." A third set of terms would be relatively neutral, affectively speaking -- "tension," "competition," "scarcity," "mediation," "bargaining," "reconciliation."

Some of us would produce terms belonging to two or to all three sets. If I am right in my predictions, the results indicate a basic ambivalence in us, individually and collectively, toward "conflict." And these mixed attitudes are justified in empirical reality. Conflicts can and do bring disorder, destruction and death to human affairs. But conflicts also can and do bring opportunity, drama, development and growth to human individuals and societies. In fact, I am prepared to defend the thesis that all individual growth and social progress involve the facing and rationally creative resolution of conflicts.

I will make one other prediction about my fantasied data collection. Since we are for the most part middle class Americans here, I predict that a large majority of our free associations to "conflict" would be negative, implying that conflict is a bad thing in human life. It is. But if it is also potentially a good thing, the motor of individual growth and social progress, will not attempt to deny, suppress or eliminate conflict, if successful, also deny, suppress or eliminate growth and progress? As a matter of fact, if conflict cannot be eliminated from human relationships, as I fully believe that it cannot, attempt to deny, suppress or eliminate it there, lead to destructive modes of expressing and handling it and so justify and reenforce the fears that led to its denial and suppression in the first place. The church school teacher who suppresses open expression of hostility between factions in her class reaps a harvest of unctuous tattling and informing upon each other for the good of the group or of the persons informed upon. The conflict is still present but in a form more ugly and less rationally manageable than before. Thus the painful self-fulfilling prophesy of the unmitigated evil of conflict re-enacts itself.

How can the cycle be broken? Here is where the neutral vocabulary for characterizing conflict -- the third set of responses -- finds its usefulness. Scientific study demands a neutral vocabulary for objectifying data collection about and interpretation of human events, however fraught with painful or joyous connotations the terms for these events in common sense language may be. If we are to understand conflict we must, for the time of diagnosis at least, get outside our fears and/or our exultation in order to estimate the nature of the conflict, its potentialities in terms of growth or destruction for those involved, and the best deployment of our resources for helping to actualize more of the former potentialities than of the latter. The neutral language and concepts of social and behavioral science are important tools in such dispassionate diagnosis.

Unfortunately, social and behavioral scientists have also tended until recently to avoid the serious study of conflict. Lewis Coser in his The Functions of Social Conflict makes this point in a telling way:

> "Even a cursory examination of the contemporary work of American sociologists clearly indicates that conflict has been very much neglected indeed as a field of investigation....
>
> "In contrast (to early American Sociologists) the majority of sociologists who dominate contemporary sociology, far from seeing themselves as reformers and addressing themselves to an audience of reformers, either have oriented themselves toward purely academic and professional audiences, or have attempted to find a hearing among decision-makers in public or private bureaucracies....
>
> "They center attention predominantly upon problems of adjustment rather than upon conflict; upon social statics rather than upon dynamics. Of key problematic importance to them has been the maintenance of existing structures and the way and means of insuring their smooth functioning."

Recently, a new interest in the scientific study of human conflict has developed. This is illustrated by the publication of a magazine, The Journal of Conflict Resolution, devoted exclusively to attempts to generalize beyond the specific areas in which conflict has been studied empirically -- race relations, labor-management relations, and international relations particularly toward more inclusive theories of conflict and strategies of conflict resolution. At our Human Relations Center in Boston University, a cross-disciplinary group has been studying conflict and conflict resolution over several years. Our conviction is that psychological, group, social and cultural factors in conflict must be seen and studied together if adequate growth-releasing strategies of resolution are to be devised and developed.

I cannot summarize here all of the propositions about conflict that today find some support in the literatures of various social and behavioral sciences. I will state a few propositions that may be useful in our thinking about valid and invalid strategies for handling the ambivalences inherent in the concept and the actuality of human conflict.

1. Conflict always occurs within a context of interdependence. It is a relationship between parts of a system of interrelated parts. If the "parties" in conflict were not interdependent in the sense that the actions of one "party" have consequences for the opposed "party" and vice versa, conflict could not occur. This helps in part to explain the fear of conflict -- at the least it disrupts the order and the productive output of the system in which it occurs, at the most it may lead to the dismemberment and destruction of the system. This proposition also offers hope for constructive resolution -- if the system of interdependence has value for all parts of the system and if perception of the common values of maintaining the system can be kept alive in all parties to the conflict, this provides a force toward creating some mutually satisfactory and acceptable resolution of the conflict, which in effect, means the improvement of the system.

The "system" as here used may be a person, an inter-person, a group, an organization, a community, a nation or an inter-nation.

2. One type of conflict grows out of similarities in the needs and values of parts of a system in the presence of scarce and undistributable goods required to satisfy these needs and realize these values. Johnny and Jimmy, siblings, both want the same toy to play with -- there is only one toy. Johnny and Jimmy are in conflict. It is not differences in needs and valuations which induces the conflict. It is rather the similarity of needs and valuations in the presence of scarce goods. Enlarging the supply of scarce goods may resolve the conflict. Changing the image of the good desired to joint utilization of the toy rather than sole possession may also resolve the conflict. If the toy is a fire truck and Johnny and Jimmy can find more value in playing a game utilizing the fire truck along with other available resources than in either possessing the fire truck along with other available resources than in either possessing the fire truck exclusively, the conflict may be lifted onto a higher level of cooperation. The main point is that similarities in need and value systems need not lead to cooperation but may rather lead to conflict. Creating distributable and non-scarce values in the conflict situation may be a growth-releasing way of resolution, if emphasis can come to be placed upon joint utilization and multiplication of distributable goods, rather than exclusive possession of scarce values.

3. Another type of conflict grows out of differences in needs and valuations as among parts of a system. The needs and values of one part of a group, for example, may favor one direction of movement for the group; the needs and values of another part of the group may favor another direction of movement. Or the differences may lie not in direction but rather in methods of moving toward the agreed upon goal. Resolution may lie in breaking up the group, in compromise, in bargaining, or in some creative synthesis of a new direction or method of movement, developed out of the very clash of differing needs and valuations. Out of the last kind of experience may grow appreciation of persons with differing values and needs in an association as sources of fruitful conflict and creativity. The sights of all parties must be lifted toward utilization of differences in a common quest and away from defensiveness toward loss of my present distinctiveness, in order to accomplish creative resolution.

4. The "ideal" resolution of the two types of conflict just noted involves two requirements. First, each party to the conflict must accept the right of the other party to his claim upon the situation along with his own, must, in effect, trust him. Second, all parties must be capable of locating realistically and rationally the sources of the conflict. When conflicts are not faced and recognized, when full-bodied communication about the nature and genesis of the conflict is not released and maintained, parties tend to develop unrealistic versions of each other and of the conflict situation. Projection by one part of his or its undesirable motivations upon the opponents occurs and vice versa. If one party feels at some level he is selfish and cannot admit this to himself, he comes to find "pure" selfishness as characteristic of his opponents. The motives of the opposition are impugned on both sides; the drama of conflict becomes a melodramatic and externalized struggle of good and evil.

Non-communication with the enemy comes to be seen as a virtue and realistic acceptance on the part of a member of my party of the right of the opponent to oppose us comes to be seen as disloyalty and treason in the member. Or, if the source of the conflict realistically involves a revered or powerful person or faction in opposition, displacement of negative effect toward a less powerful and less revered "opponent" takes place, responsibility for the conflict is heaped upon a more or less helpless scapegoat.

In other words, under conditions of denial and non-communication, "unrealistic" versions of the conflict tend to obscure the "realistic" sources of the conflict. Both trust and rationality, essential elements in creative resolution of conflict, tend to be lost and excluded from the situation. Preventing the emergence of non-realistic conflicts or converting a nonrealistically perceived conflict situation into a realistically perceived one become major concerns of those who would encourage the creative utilization of conflict in human affairs.

What forms do strategies for denying and/or eliminating conflict from human situations take? Most of these have already been suggested. Perhaps renaming them here will be helpful:

a. Segregation of conflicting elements in a situation. Segregation seldom works well because of the actual interdependence within the system which it thwarts.

b. Melodramatic externalization of the conflict. The conflict is all out there between the evil its and the holy I's. The conflict is actually within the I and within the Thou as well as between the I and Thou. Externalization thus beclouds reality.

c. Making a virtue of submission to established power relations. To maintain an existing order against all internal attack is to assume that whatever is is right, and since in human affairs this is never true, reality is falsified again.

d. Myth that we are all alike essentially. This is false as well as suicidal -- I am I and Thou art Thou. But even if it were accepted as true, it would not eliminate conflicts which grow out of similar needs and values in the presence of scarce and undistributable goods.

e. Undermining "partial" identifications in the name of devotion to the whole. I am responsible not alone to maintain the whole of whatever systems I belong to but also to change them where I believe they need changing. My "partial" identifications within the whole are my leverage for changing the whole over time. To deprive me of these levers is, in effect, to crush me into passivity.

f. Legalistic punishment of aggressive acts without consideration of the merits of the context in which aggression and counter-aggression occur. We frequently assess the merits of the parties to a conflict by trying to answer the question "Who started it?," rather than "What are the rights in the situation?" This is to substitute chronology for ethnics and theology.

And what of the conditions and strategies for facing and creatively and rationally resolving conflicts in human affairs?

a. Facing and accepting the complexity of the motivations of myself and of my own party and of those in opposition within the conflict situation. To oversimplify a complex situation is to falsify it, however flatteringly to the ego, and out of falsification further falsifications grow.

b. Humanizing and rehumanizing my party and the opposition party in the conflict situation. This is related to the previous point, but humanization involves more than a fair assessment of faults and virtues. It involves acceptance of the dignity and potentiality for growth and learning of self and of others. It is to see the drama of human conflict as essentially tragic rather than melodramatic.

c. Internationalization of the conflict. Objectivity toward a conflict situation can be achieved only if the claims of my opponents upon the situation can be internalized and entertained along with my own. What is at stake in the conflict is felt as well as cognized.

d. Envisioning values inherent in the situation as changed. Conflicts generated in situations as they now are cannot be resolved without altering the situation, including the parties within it. Rejuggling the situation as now perceived and enacted can lead only to compromise resolutions. Creative resolutions require changes all around.

e. Acceptance of conflict as inherent in human life. This does not mean passive drift in the presence of conflict or joyous exultation in the destruction of values which is always potential in conflict situations. It means rather an attitude of not being so threatened by conflict as to resort consistently to strategies of evasion or denial.

f. Maintaining and building in each person and other human system a methodological character tuned to devision and enacting growth-releasing resolutions of conflicts whenever they may appear. To rely on commonly acceptable methodologies to carry us through situations where our own values are under challenge and review is not to forsake. It is rather to accept the premise of continuing creation of new values through conflicts jointly, imaginatively and rationally faced and resolved. It is to remember John Dewey's wisdom -- "He who would think of ends seriously must think of means reverently."

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HOW TO CHOOSE BETWEEN STRATEGIES OF CONFLICT AND COLLABORATION

Distributive and Integrative Social Situations.

I would like to examine the factors that should influence our choice between strategies of conflict and collaboration, or competition and cooperation in various social situations. We will be especially interested in analyzing whether the model of collaboration represented by the T-Groups in its later stages can be applied in our work situations back home.

We can distinguish between social situations of two types - distributive and integrative. The serious poker game is an example of a distributive social situation - what one person wins the other must lose. Several persons working together on a parlor jig-saw puzzle is an example of an integrative situation - persons integrating their resources toward a common task. We can contrast other business situations: A buyer's interaction with a used-car dealer in an effort to arrive at the purchase price of a used car will be primarily distributional bargaining; whereas discussions with a fellow member of a research team may be largely an integrative process.

Alternate Modes of Behavior.

Let us identify two familiar, but opposite modes of behavior, which we may designate Approach A and Approach B.

APPROACH A	APPROACH B
1. Behavior is purposeful in pursuing own goals.	1. Behavior is purposeful in pursuing goals held in common.
2. Secrecy	2. Openness
3. Accurate personal understanding of own needs, but publicly disguised or misrepresented - don't let them know what you really want most so that they won't know how much you are really willing to give up to get it.	3. Accurate personal understanding of own needs; and accurate representation of them.
4. Unpredictable, mixed strategies, utilizing the element of surprise.	4. Predictable; while flexible behavior is appropriate, it is not designed to take other party by surprise.
5. Threats and bluffs.	5. Threats or bluffs are not used.
6. Search behavior is devoted to finding ways of appearing to become committed to a position; logical, non-rational and irrational arguments alike may serve this purpose.	6. Search behavior is devoted to finding solutions to problems, utilizing logical and innovative processes.

7. Success is often enhanced (where teams, committees, or organizations are involved on each side) by forming bad stereotype of the other, by ignoring the other's logic, by increasing the level of hostility. These tend to strengthen in-group loyalty and convince others that you mean business.	7. Success demands that stereotypes be dropped, that ideas be given consideration on their merit regardless of sources and that hostility not be induced deliberately. In fact, positive feelings about others are both a cause and an effect of other aspects of Approach B.
8. Pathological extreme is when one assumes that everything that prevents other from reaching other's goal also must facilitate one's own movement toward his goal; thus, one would state his own goals as being to negate goal achievement of others.	8. Pathological extreme is when one will assume that whatever is good for others and group is necessarily good for self. Cannot distinguish own identity from group or other person's identity. Will not take responsibility for own self.
9. Etc.	9. Etc.

My thesis is that Approach A is associated with what are assumed to be distributive social situations; and Approach B with integrative. We may, however, need to check our assumptions.

The T-Group - A Special Case?

Now, referring to our T-Group, whereas we made heavy use of Approach A early in the life of the T-Group, we have increasingly adopted the alternate - Approach B. Approach B is illustrated when X initiates, Y seeks relevant opinions and facts, Z gives opinion and facts, R clarifies and S tests for consensus. By contrast, Approach A is when if X initiates, Y invariably initiates on another topic, and perhaps Z is still another; or when X initiates, Y offers certain opinions, and Z invariably offers contrary opinions.

Two things have happened to shift our behavior from Approach A to Approach B.

First, we have made the rational discovery that gaining personal learnings through the T-Group is largely an integrative process. However, we didn't recognize a largely integrative game when we first saw it. For the first few meetings, many of us were acting as if there was a limited amount of attention or prominence, and control and influence, and we wanted to hurry up and get our share. Not that those of us who held back in this period didn't also see the game this way - we just had a different strategy, namely to hold back while the others spent themselves. The paradox here is that as long as no one will accept another's influence there is no influence, and no one's need to be influential is satisfied; later, when there is little competition for influence, all members exercise more influence. Members of the group can then collaborate to give individual feedback and to understand how groups function.

Second, we have made the *emotional adjustments* to each other such that there is less personal need to "prove oneself" or to "defeat another." As long as the group is hung up with competition for attention and control very little genuine concern by anyone for anyone can develop or be shown; and mutual relationships of confidence and concern are essential to the very personal kind of T-Group learning.

Recognizing that we have shifted our behavior and that Approach B has proved far superior for the T-Group, what are the implications for modifying our approach back home? The answer to this lies in the objective nature of the back-home situations. Are they structured as primarily distributive or integrative situations?

Logical Determinants of the Social Situation.

Considering a host of possible situations - engineering a new gadget, installing a new EDP system, getting a new man assigned to your department, writing a staff report, delegating authority for a project, settling a grievance, negotiating a contract, dealing with a customer, dealing with a vendor, developing a marketing strategy - how can we tell whether the situation is logically distributive or integrative, so that one can select the appropriate behaviors? The key is the relationship of the goals of the two parties. Hence, the discriminating question: If one reaches his goals will the other in some degree be unable to reach his goal? If so, and to the extent that that is true, the parties are entered into a distributive situation. The extent to which goal achievement by one involves or leads to goal achievement by the other is the extent to which the game is integrative.

Let's look at the goals and for the reward structure of the T-Group. Generally stated, the personal learning goals of the T-Groups are held in common - to learn more about self and groups and to practice learnings. Moreover, the lab has deliberately minimized the payoff for competitive behavior; there is no external reward system; there is no important set of status symbols in scarce supply to be distributed among the best performers according to some external standards determined by the training staff; nor are there any economic resources that one can compete for. We deliberately remove the typical environmental conditions which induce and sustain competitive behavior, not only because the learning process we have in mind is collaborative, but also because we believe collaborative behavior itself is worth practicing - and that it can be employed more on the job.

Now, we have a different situation back home. We work in organizations in which only some of us occupy similar positions today are going to be promoted to the next higher position tomorrow. And we are all aware - those of us competing for that job - that, provided the operation doesn't go defunct, one of us will get the job. Well, here is a reward structure that encourages some elements of Approach A behavior, because the situation is at least partially distributive. But other aspects of the reward structure demand that these same people also collaborate.

One Problem - The Mixed Social Situation or "Game." Itself.

The preceding suggests an important source of our problems - we have to play both the distributive and integrative games simultaneously; that is, if you are a company negotiator facing the union, you must on the one hand try to keep the settlement nearer the lower end of the range set by industry patterns; knowing full well your counterpart in the union is an adversary with opposite intentions. And yet, on the other hand, you have to be able to explore with him solutions to the problem of seniority, job jurisdiction, retraining programs, etc. created by his need for job security and your need for production flexibility. To cast the problem of the economic settlement wholly into an integrative model would be to risk a larger than necessary package. And to cast the problem of seniority provisions wholly into a distributive model would be to ignore whatever possibilities there are to meet his needs without corresponding sacrifice on your part, and vice versa.

The question is, what are the problems of being engaged with the other in both distributive and integrative games?. Playing the distributive game creates a "win-lose" complex with the following consequences,[1] each of which makes problem solving with the same individuals more difficult:

1. "We-they" and "superiority-inferiority" complexes (individual factions or groups under competitive pressure invariably rate themselves "above average" in both cohesion and ability.)

2. Distortions in judgment. Individuals or groups under competitive pressure invariably evaluate their own contributions as best, and fall into downgrading efforts of others.

3. Distortions in perception. Experiments demonstrate that under competitive pressures persons perceive that they understand the other's proposal when in fact they do not. Consequently areas shared in common are likely to go unrecognized.

Another Problem - We Overuse an Approach.

One person may approach every situation as if it were a distributive game; e.g., he will transform every discussion into a debate. Another person will approach every situation as if it were an integrative game. An older gentleman I knew well was such a person; e.g., he even saw selling his house in that light, and was severely taken advantage of. Another will tend to see the objective reality of the situation, and choose approaches that are appropriate. The first type I will call cynical, the second naive, and the third realistic.

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[1] Some of these consequences and others are reported on in R. R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton's "Reactions to Intergroup Competition under Win-Lose Conditions," Management Science, July 1961.

Now, I think the more common problem with us in industry and education today is cynicism - we characteristically approach situations as if they were distributive even when they are not. The T-Group experience, as well as our general familiarity with organizational life, tends to bear this out.

Similarly, the early decades of union-management relations were conducted in strictly win-lose manner, as if the whole thing were distributional bargaining - what labor gained management must lose, and vice versa. However, over time attitudes changed, parties began to wonder if, and hope that, the game might have some integrative aspects. And indeed they did - witness such arrangements as those in auto and steel for administering SUB. The SUB concept itself is evidence. This is not to suggest that no distributive element of labor relations persists, and therefore that no competitive mode of behavior remains appropriate. On the contrary, unions and managements do put different priorities on different goals.

Note the key role of attitudinal change as a factor permitting integrative behavior to substitute for distributive. The important thing is that the parties began to get to know each other and have some trust in each other (if not positive affect.) Then they began to re-examine the situation to find its integrative aspects. This, of course, is just what happened in our T-Group.

In diagnosing our back-home problems where we find that we have had to use Approach A, we can make three possible diagnoses:

1. First, that no real conflict exists, but it has been assumed that it does. That is, we may re-examine the logical aspects of the situation and discover that no real conflict of goals or competitive reward structure exists. You may discover new integrative possibilities.

2. Second, there is no real goal conflict, a fact that is already recognized by the parties involved, but that basic attitudes and interpersonal relations between them prevent collaboration to move toward their common goal or goals. Here, one must work directly on improving interpersonal relationships, creating mutual trust and concern.

Steps which one can take toward this end include: (a) as a starter, accepting the position of the other in good faith; (b) if two antagonistic groups are involved, such as union and management committees or an operating department and the controller's department, break down the groups and assign to joint subcommittees which permit the individuals to interact face-to-face; (c) increase the amount of meetings spent on fact finding, rather than direct attempt to argue that differences are more apparent than real; (d) etc.

3. Third, we may discover that apparent goal conflict is significant and real. If we are only participants in a situation where the reward structure is determined by others we may have no choice but to adopt Approach A and play the distributive game.

However, as managers who establish the nature and rules of the game, including the reward system, you can effect whether you get distributive or integrative behavior. As you consider the relative advantages of the two types of situations, you might recall some developments in the T-Group that accompany the shift from a competitive to a cooperative situation. Experiments of Morton Deutsch[2] have produced similar results.

With respect to group function the cooperative social situation (integrative game) produces more of the following behavior than did the competitive social situation (distributive game):

a. Coordination of efforts.
b. Sub-division of activity.
c. Achievement pressure.
d. Number of communication acts.
e. Attentiveness to fellow members.
f. Mutual comprehension of communication.
g. Common appraisals of communication.
h. Orientation and orderliness.
i. Productivity per unit of time.
j. Better quality of product and discussion.
k. Friendliness during discussions.
l. More group functions (whereas competitive showed more individual functions.)
m. Pride in group (coming after first integrative success.)

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[2] Cartwright and Zander, (Eds.) Group Dynamics (2d edition).

SOME DIMENSIONS OF GROUP GROWTH

1. Intercommunication between members of group:

   a. Mechanics of communication -- vocabulary, rules of procedure, semantic sensitivity, *et cetera*
   b. Permissiveness for all members in expressing fears, needs, concerns, ideas, *et cetera* to the group

2. Group objectivity toward its own functioning:

   a. Ability by all members to make and accept interpretations about member and group functioning

   b. Ability to collect and use appropriate process-information about itself

3. Interdependent responsibility by all members for:

   a. Sharing leadership functions -- direction setting, being a resource for the group, *et cetera*
   b. Achieving skill in flexible adjustment to member and leader when required by the group at various stages of group production
   c. Achieving mutual sensitivity to the needs and styles of participation of all members.
   d. Distinguishing between member-role contributions and personality characteristics.

4. Group cohesion adequate to permit:

   a. Assimilation of new ideas without group disintegration
   b. Assimilation of new members in a way to strengthen rather than to disrupt the group

   c. Holding to long-range goals where the situation requires this
   d. Profiting from success experiences
   e. Learning from failure experiences and setting of realistic goals
   f. Making constructive use of internal conflicts

5. Group ability to inform itself and to think straight and decide creatively about its problems:

   a. Utilizing contribution potential of all members

6. Group ability to detect and control rhythms of group metabolism:
   Fatigue, tension, tempo, pace, emotional atmosphere, *et cetera*

7. Skill in recognizing and achieving control of significant sociometric factors in its own group structure

8. Satisfactory integrations of member ideologies, needs and goals with common group traditions, ideology and goals

9. Group ability to create new functions and groups as needed and to terminate its existence if and as appropriate

CHANGE DOES NOT HAVE TO BE HAPHAZARD

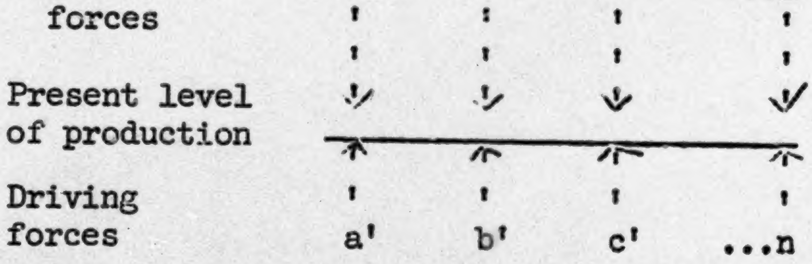
No institution or organization is exempt from change. Today the student who returns to his alma mater ten years after graduation can expect to find changes, not only in personnel, but also in personnel policies and teaching practices. The executive returning to the firm where he once worked, the nurse going back to her old hospital, the social worker visiting his agency - all can expect to find sweeping changes.

It is fairly easy to identify changes in institutional patterns after they have occurred. It is more difficult to analyze changes while they are going on and still more difficult to predict changes or to influence significantly the direction and the tempo of changes already under way. Yet, more and more, those who have managerial functions in organizations must analyze and predict impending changes and take deliberate action to shape change according to some criteria of progress. The planning of change has become part of the responsibility of management in all contemporary institutions, whether the task of the institution is defined in terms of health, education, social welfare, industrial production, or religious indoctrination.

Whatever other equipment managers require in analyzing potentialities for change and in planning and directing change in institutional settings, they need some conceptual schema for thinking about change. This need stems from the profusion and variety of behaviors that accompany any process of change.

One useful model for thinking about change has been proposed by Kurt Lewin, who saw behavior in an institutional setting, not as a static habit or pattern, but as a dynamic balance of forces working in opposite directions within the social-psychological space of the institution (1).

Take, for example, the production level of a work team in a factory. This level fluctuates within narrow limits above and below a certain number of units of production per day. Why does this pattern persist? Because, Lewin says, the forces that tend to raise the level of production are equal to the forces that tend to depress it. Among the forces tending to raise the level of production might be: (a) the pressures of supervisors on the work team to produce more; (b) the desire of at least some team members to attract favorable attention from supervisors in order to get ahead individually; (c) the desire of team members to earn more under the incentive plan of the plant. Such forces Lewin called "driving forces." Among the forces tending to lower the level of production might be: (a') a group standard in the production team against "rate busting" or "eager beavering" by individual workers; (b') resistance of team members to accepting training and supervision from management; (c') feelings by workers that the product they are producing is not important. Granted the goal of increased productivity, these forces are "restraining forces." The balance between the two sets of forces, which defines the established level of production, Lewin called a "quasi-stationary equilibrium." We may diagram this equilibrium as follows:



According to Lewin, this type of thinking about patterns of institutionalized behavior applies not only to levels of production in industry but also to such patterns as levels of discrimination in communities; atmosphere of democracy or autocracy in social agencies; supervisor-teach-pupil relationships in school systems; and formal or informal working relationships among levels of a hospital organization.

According to this way of looking at patterned behavior, change takes place when an imbalance occurs between the sum of the restraining forces and the sum of the driving forces. Such imbalance unfreezes the pattern: the level then changes until the opposing forces are again brought into equilibrium. An imbalance may occur through a change in the magnitude of any one force, through a change in the direction of a force, or through the addition of a new force.

For examples of each of these ways of unfreezing a situation, let us look again at our original illustration. Suppose that the members of the work team join a new union, which sets out to get pay raises. In pressing for shifts in over-all wage policy, the union increases the suspicion of workers toward the motives of all management, including supervisors. This change tends to increase the restraining force--let's say restraining force b'. As a result, the level of production moves down. As the level of production falls, supervisors increase their pressure toward greater production, and driving force a increases. This release of increased counterforce tends to bring the system into balance again at a level somewhere near the previous level. But the increase in magnitude of these opposed forces may also increase the tension under which people work. Under such conditions, even though the level of production does not go down very much, the situation becomes more psychologically explosive, less stable, and less predictable.

A war that demands more and more of the product that the work team is producing may convert the workers' feeling that they are not producing anything important (restraining force c') to a feeling that their work is important and that they are not working hard enough. This response will occur provided, of course, that the workers are committed to the war effort. As the direction of force c' is reversed, the level of production will almost certainly rise to bring the behavior pattern into a state of equilibrium at a higher level of productivity.

Suppose a new driving force is added in the shape of a supervisor who wins the trust and the respect of the work team. The new force results in a desire on the part of the work team to make the well-liked supervisor look good -- or at least to keep him from looking bad -- in relation to his colleagues and superiors. This force may operate to offset a generally unfavorable attitude toward management.

These examples suggest that in change there is an unfreezing of an existing equilibrium, a movement toward a new equilibrium, and the refreezing of the new equilibrium. Planned change must use situational forces to accomplish unfreezing, to influence the movement in generally desirable directions, and to rearrange the situation, not only to avoid return to the old level, but to stabilize the change or improvement.

This discussion suggests three major strategies for achieving change in any given pattern of behavior: the driving forces may be increased; the restraining forces may be decreased; these two strategies may be combined. In general, if the first strategy only is adopted, the tension in the system is likely to increase. More tension means more instability and more unpredictability and the likelihood of irrational rather than rational responses to attempts to induce change.

It is a well-known fact that change in an organization is often followed by a reaction toward the old pattern, a reaction that sets in when pressure for change is relaxed. After a curriculum survey, one school system put into effect several recommendations for improvement suggested by the survey. The action was taken under pressure from the board and the superintendent, but when they relaxed their vigilance, the old pattern crept back in.

This experience raises the problem of how to maintain a desirable change. Backsliding takes place for various reasons. Those affected by the changes may not have participated in the planning enough to internalize the changes that those in authority are seeking to induce; when the pressure of authority is relaxed, there is no pressure from those affected to maintain the change. Or, a change in one part of the social system may not have been accompanied by enough co-relative changes in overlapping parts and subsystems.

On the basis of this model of analysis, several principles of strategy for effecting institutional change may be formulated.

To change a subsystem or any part of a subsystem, relevant aspects of the environment must also be changed.

The manager of the central office of a large school system wants to increase the efficiency of the secretarial forces by placing private secretaries in a pool. It is the manager's hope that the new arrangement will make for better utilization of the secretaries' time. In this situation at least two driving forces are obvious: fewer secretaries can serve a larger number of subexecutives; a substantial saving can be expected in office space and equipment. Among the restraining forces are the secretaries' resistance to a surrender of their personal relationship with a status person, a relationship implicit in the role of private secretary; the possible loss of the prestige implicit in the one-to-one secretary-boss relationship; the prospective dehumanization, as the secretaries see it, of their task; and a probable increase in work load. Acceptance of this change in role and relationship would require accompanying changes in other parts of the subsystem. Furthermore, before the private secretaries could whole-heartedly accept the change, their bosses as well as lower-status clerks and typists in the central office would have to accept the alteration in the secretarial role as one that did not necessarily imply an undesirable change in status. The secretaries' morale would surely be affected if secretaries in other parts of the school system, secretaries to principals in school buildings, for example, were not also assigned to a pool.

Thus to plan changes in one part of a subsystem, in this case in the central office of the school system, eventually involves consideration of changes in overlapping parts of the system--the clerical force, the people accustomed to private secretaries, and others as well. If these other changes are not effected, one can expect lowered morale, requests for transfers, and even resignation. Attempts to change any subsystem in a larger system must be preceded or accompanied by diagnosis of other subsystems that will be affected by the change.

To change behavior on any one level of a hierarchical organization, it is necessary to achieve complementary and reinforcing changes in organization levels above and below that level.

Shortly after World War II, commanders in the United States Army decided to attempt to change the role of the sergeancy. The sergeant was not to be the traditionally tough, driving leader of men but a supportive, counseling squad leader. The traditional view of the sergeant's role was held by enlisted men, below the rank of sergeant, as well as by second lieutenants, above the rank of sergeant.

Among the driving forces for change were the need to transform the prewar career army into a new peacetime military establishment composed largely of conscripts; the perceived need to reduce the gap between military life and civilian status; and the desire to avoid any excesses in the new army that might cause the electorate to urge a return to the prewar volunteer military establishment.

Among the immediate restraining forces were the traditional authoritarian role behaviors of the sergeancy, forged by wartime needs and peacetime barracks service. These behaviors were in harmony with the needs of a military establishment that by its very nature is based on the notion of a clearly defined chain of command. Implicit in such a hierarchy are orders, not persuasion; unquestioning obedience, not critical questioning of decisions. Also serving as a powerful restraining force was the need for social distance between ranks in order to restrict friendly interaction between levels.

When attempts were made to change the sergeant's role, it was discovered that the second lieutenant's role, at the next higher level, also had to be altered. No longer could the second lieutenant use the authority of the chain-of-command system in precisely the same way as before. Just as the sergeant could no longer operate on the principle of unquestioning obedience to his orders, so the second lieutenant could no longer depend on the sergeant to pass orders downward unquestioningly. It was soon seen that, if the changed role of the sergeant was to be stabilized, the second lieutenant's role would have to be revised.

The role of the enlisted man also had to be altered significantly. Inculcated with the habit of responding unquestioningly to the commands of his superiors, especially the sergeant, the enlisted man found the new permissiveness somewhat disturbing. On the one hand, the enlisted man welcomed being treated more like a civilian and less like a soldier. On the other hand, he felt a need for an authoritative spokesman who represented the army unequivocally. The two needs created considerable conflict. An interesting side effect, which illustrates the need of the enlisted men for an authoritative spokesman for the army, was the development of greater authority in the rank of corporal, the rank between private and sergeant.

To recapitulate briefly, the attempts to change the role of the sergeancy led unavoidably to alterations in the roles of lieutenant, private, and corporal. Intelligent planning of change in the sergeancy would have required simultaneous planning for changes at the interrelated levels.

The place to begin change is at those points in the system where some stress and strain exist. Stress may give rise to dissatisfaction with the status quo and thus become a motivating factor for change in the system.

One school principal used the dissatisfaction expressed by teachers over noise in the corridors during passing periods to secure agreement to extra assignments to hall duty. But until the teachers felt this dissatisfaction, the principal could not secure their whole-hearted agreement to the assignments.

Likewise, hospitals have recently witnessed a significant shift of functions from nurses to nurse's aides. A shortage of nurses and consequent overwork led the nurses to demand more assistance. For precisely the same reasons, teachers in Michigan schools were induced to experiment with teacher's aides.

The need for teachers to use the passing period as a rest period, the desire of the nurses to keep exclusive control over their professional relationships with the patient, and the resistance of teachers to sharing teaching functions with lay people--all these restraining forces gave way before dissatisfactions with the status quo. The dissatisfactions became driving forces sufficiently strong to overcome the restraining forces. Of course, the restraining forces do not disappear in the changed situation. They are still at work and will need to be handled as the changed arrangements become stabilized.

In diagnosing the possibility of change in a given institution, it is always necessary to assess the degree of stress and strain at points where change is sought. One should ordinarily avoid beginning change at the point of greatest stress.

Status relationships had become major concern of staff members in a certain community agency. Because of lower morale in the professional staff, the lay board decided to revamp lay-professional relationships. The observable form of behavior that led to the action of the board was the striving for recognition from the lay policy-making body by individual staff members. After a management survey, the channels of communication between the lay board and the professional staff were limited to communication between the staff head and the members of the lay board. The entire staff, except the chief executive, perceived this step as a personal rejection by the lay board and as a significant lowering of the status of staff members. The result was still lower morale. Because of faulty diagnosis the change created more problems than it solved.

The problem of status-striving and its adulteration of lay-professional relationships could have been approached more wisely. Definition of roles--lay and professional--could have been undertaken jointly by the executive and the staff in an effort to develop a more common perception of the situation and a higher professional *esprit de corps*. Lack of effective recognition symbols within the staff itself might have been dealt with first, and the touchy prestige symbol of staff communication with the lay board put aside for the time being.

If thoroughgoing changes in a hierarchical structure are desirable or necessary, change should ordinarily start with the policy-making body.

Desegregation has been facilitated in school systems where the school board first agreed to the change. The board's statement of policy supporting desegregation and its refusal to panic at the opposition have been crucial factors in acceptance of the change throughout the school system and eventually throughout the community. In localities where boards of education have not publicly agreed to the change, administrators' efforts to desegregate have been overcautious and halfhearted, and the slightest sign of opposition in the institution or the community has led to a strengthening rather than a weakening of resistance to desegregation. Sanction by the ruling body lends legitimacy to any institutional change, though, of course, "illegitimate" resistance must still be faced and dealt with as a reality in the situation.

Both the formal and the informal organization of an institution must be considered in planning to any process of change.

Besides a formal structure, every social system has a network of cliques and informal groupings. These informal groupings often exert such strong restraining influences on institutional changes initiated by formal authority that, unless their power can be harnessed in support of a change, no enduring change is likely to occur. The informal groupings in a factory often have a strong influence on the members' rate of work, a stronger influence than the pressure by the foreman. Any worker who violates the production norms established by his peer group invites ostracism, a consequence few workers dare to face. Schools, too, have their informal groupings, membership in which is often more important to teachers than the approval of their supervisors. To involve these informal groups in the planning of changes requires ingenuity and sensitivity as well as flexibility on the part of an administrator.

The effectiveness of a planned change is often directly related to the degree to which members at all levels of an institutional hierarchy take part in the fact-finding and the diagnosing of needed changes and in the formulating and reality-testing of goals and programs of change.

Once the workers in an institution have agreed to share in investigating their work problems and their relationship problems, a most significant state in overcoming restraining forces has been reached. This agreement should be followed by shared fact-finding by the group, usually with technical assistance from resources outside the particular social system. Participation by those affected by the change in fact-finding and interpretation increases the likelihood that new insights will be formed and that goals of change will be accepted. More accurate diagnosis results if the people to be changed are trained in fact-finding and fact-interpreting methods as part of the process of planning.

This article has been written from the standpoint that change in an institution or organization can be planned. Is this a reasonable view? Can change be deliberately planned in organizations and institutions as complex as school systems, hospitals, and armies? Do not many determinants of change operate without the awareness or knowledge of those involved?

It is true that most people are unaware of many factors that trigger processes of change in the situations in which they work. And most people are unaware of many factors that influence the direction of change. Many factors, even when known, are outside the power of people in an organization to control. For some forces that influence change in an organization stem from the wider society: new knowledge, new social requirements, new public demands force the management of a school system to alter the content and the methods of its instructional program. Some factors cannot be fully known in advance. Even when they are anticipated, the school cannot fully control them.

Some forces that work for change or resistance to change in an organization stem from the personalities of the leaders and the members of the organization. Some of these factors are unknown to the persons themselves and to those around them. Some personality factors, even when they are known, cannot be altered or reshaped, save perhaps by therapeutic processes beyond the resources of personnel involved.

All this is true. Yet members and leaders of organizations, especially those whose positions call for planning and directing change, cannot evade responsibility for attempting to extend their awareness and their knowledge of what determines change. Nor can they evade responsibility for involving others in planning change. All concerned must learn to adjust to factors that cannot be altered or controlled, and to adapt and to alter those that can be. For as long as the dynamic forces of science, technology, and intercultural mixing are at work in the world, change in organizations is unavoidable. Freedom, in the sense of the extension of uncoerced and effective human choice, depends on the extension of man's power to bring processes of change, now often chaotic and unconsidered, under more planful and rational control (2).

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THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP AND FEEDBACK

I General Observations

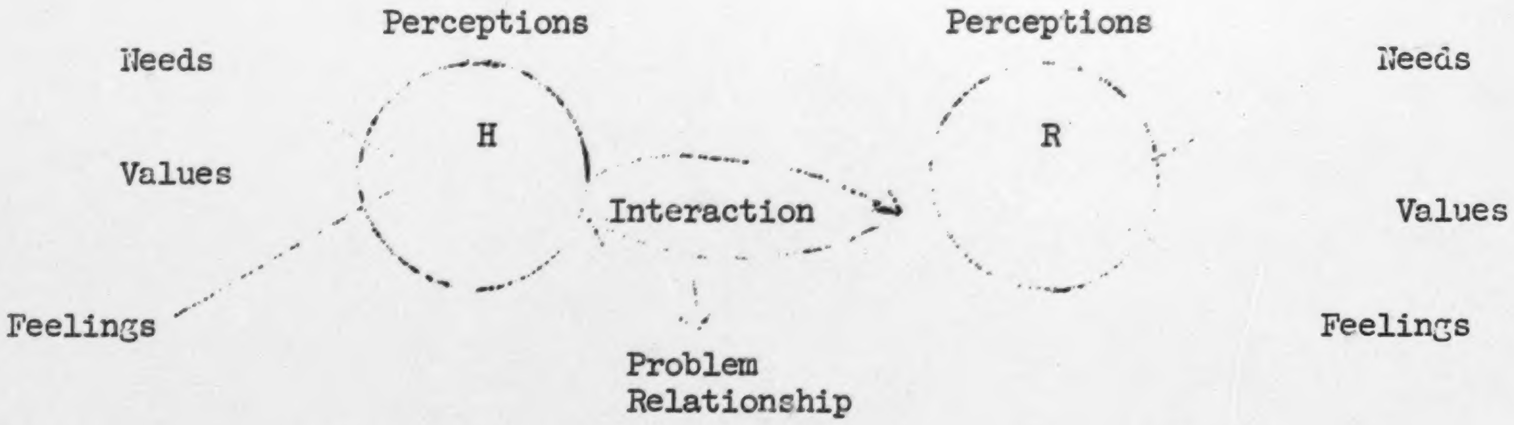
1. Different names are used to designate the helping process such as counseling, teaching, guiding, training, educating, etc.

2. They have in common that the helping person is trying to influence (and therefore change) the individual who is being helped.

3. The expectation is furthermore that the direction of the change in the receiver of help will be constructive and useful to him, (i.e., clarify his perceptions of the problem, bolster his self-confidence, modify his behavior or develop new skills, etc.)

II One Way to Visualize the Helping Situation

1. One way to look at the helping situation is to sketch it in the following manner.



2. The helping situation is dynamic, i.e., characterized by interaction which is both verbal and non-verbal, and relationships.

3. The helping person has needs (biological and psychological), feelings, and a set of values.

4. The receiver of help has needs (biological and psychological), feelings, and a set of values.

5. Both helper and the receiver of help are trying to satisfy needs in the situation.

6. The helper has perceptions of himself, of the receiver of help, of the problem, and of the entire situation (expectancies, roles, standards, etc.)

7. The receiver of help has perceptions of himself, of the helper, of the problems, and of the entire situation (expectancies, roles, standards, etc.)

8. The interaction takes place in relation to some need or problem which may be external to the two individuals, interwoven with the relationship of the two individuals, or rooted in the relationship between the two individuals. Wherever the beginning point and the focus of emphasis is, the relationship between the two individuals becomes an important element in the helping situation as soon as interaction begins.

9. His needs, values and feelings, and his perception of them as well as his perception of the situation (including the problem and the helper) cause the receiver of help to have certain objectives in the interaction which takes place.

10. His needs, values and feelings, and his perception of them as well as his perception of the situation (including the problem and the receiver of help) cause the helper to have certain objectives in the interaction which takes place.

11. Both helper and receiver of help have power, i.e. influence, in relation to the helping situation. Except for surface conformity or breaking off the interaction, however, it is the receiver of help who controls the question of whether in the final analysis change takes place.

III To depict the helping situation as above suggests its complexity. It is not easy to give help to another individual in such a way that he will be strengthened in doing a better job of handling his situation. Nor is it easy to receive help from another person, that is the kind of help which makes us more adequate in dealing with our problems. If we really listen and reflect upon the situations in which we are in either the helper or helping role, we not only are impressed with the magnitude and range of the problems involved in the helping situation, but also realize that we can keep on learning as a helping person or a person receiving help as long as we live.

IV Let us reflect on some of the things about us that make it difficult to receive help.

1. It is hard to really admit our difficulties even to ourselves. It may be even harder to admit them to someone else. There are concerns sometimes whether we can really trust the other person, particularly if it is in a work or other situation which might effect our standing. We may also be afraid of what the other person thinks of us.

2. We may have struggled so hard to make ourselves independent persons that the thought of depending on another individual seems to violate something within us. Or we may all our lives have looked for someone on whom to be dependent and we try to repeat this pattern in our relationship with the helping person.

3. We may be looking for sympathy and support rather than for help in seeing our difficulty more clearly. We ourselves may have to change as well as others in the situation. When the helper tries to point out some of the ways we are contributing to the problem, we may stop listening. Solving a problem may mean uncovering some of the sides of ourselves which we have avoided or wished to avoid thinking about.

4. We may feel our problem is so unique no one could ever understand it and certainly not an outsider.

V Let us reflect upon some of the things which make it difficult for us to give help.

1. Most of us like to give advice. Doing so suggests to us that we are competent and important. We easily get caught in a telling role without testing whether our advice is appropriate to the abilities, the fears, or the powers of the person we are trying to help.

2. If the person we are trying to help becomes defensive we may try to argue or pressure him -- meet resistance with more pressure and increase resistance. This is typical in argument.

3. We may confuse the relationship by only responding to one aspect of what we see in the other's problem by over-praising, avoiding recognition that the person being counseled must see his own role and his own limitations as well.

VI To be fruitful the helping situation needs these characteristics:

1. Mutual trust

2. Recognition that the helping situation is a joint exploration.

3. Listening, with the helper listening more than the individual receiving help.

4. Behavior by the helper which is calculated to make it easier for the individual receiving help to talk.

VII Because we are human, the potential for all the weaknesses and the strengths, the follies, and the wisdom known to man exists at some level within us.

Human beings become more capable of dealing with their problems as success experiences give them a greater sense of adequacy to meet situations. This does not imply avoiding a recognition of the conflict issues and the inadequacies but a recognition as well of the strengths and the success experiences.

VIII "Feedback" is a way of helping another person to consider changing his behavior. It is communication to a person (or a group) which gives that person information about how he affects others. As in a guided missile system, feedback helps an individual keep his behavior "on target" and thus better achieve his goals.

Some criteria for useful feedback:

1. It is descriptive rather than evaluative. By describing one's own reaction, it leaves the individual free to use it or to use it as he sees fit. By avoiding evaluative language, it reduces the need for the individual to react defensively.

2. It is specific rather than general. To be told that one is "dominating" will probably not be as useful as to be told that "just now when we were deciding the issue you did not listen to what others said and I felt forced to accept your arguments or face attack from you."

3. It takes into account the needs of both the receiver and giver of feedback. Feedback can be destructive when it serves only our own needs and fails to consider the needs of the person on the receiving end.

4. It is directed toward behavior which the receiver can do something about. Frustration is only increased when a person is reminded of some short-coming over which he has no control.

5. It is solicited, rather than imposed. Feedback is most useful when the receiver himself has formulated the kind of question which those observing him can answer.

6. It is well-timed. In general, feedback is most useful at the earliest opportunity after the given behavior (depending, of course, on the person's readiness to hear it, support available from others, etc.)

7. It is checked to insure clear communication. One way of doing this is to have the receiver try to rephrase the feedback he has received to see if it corresponds to what the sender had in mind.

8. When feedback is given in a training group, both giver and receiver have opportunity to check with others in the group the accuracy of the feedback. Is this one man's impression or an impression shared by others?

Feedback, then, is a way of giving help; it is a corrective mechanism for the individual who wants to learn how well his behavior matches his intentions; and it is a means for establishing one's identity - for answering Who am I?

THE CHANGE AGENT AND SOCIAL INTERVENTION

I Definition: A change agent is any person who intervenes into the processes of a social organization with the intention of facilitating a process of change. He is not a person who tries to get other people to do what he wants them to do -- whether they want to do that or not.

II What kind of change is to be introduced?

1. That perceived as needed by the change agent?
2. That perceived as needed by the organizational consensus?
3. That perceived as needed by the most powerful persons in the organization?
4. That determined by the usual decision-making processes?
5. That determined by a new decision-making process?
6. Other?

III What social system or social systems are involved?

1. How are roles, resources, and rewards allocated in the organization?
2. What are the current directions of change in the allocation of roles, resources, and rewards?
3. How is the current change process related to any provisionally proposed change?
4. What are the driving and restraining forces?
5. What are the adaptive advantages of the restraining forces? Driving forces? How much tension is there in the system because of the opposing forces?
6. What methods of restraint, control, and influence are prevalent in the system? How are the methods used to influence the people involved to respond to the restraining forces? Driving forces? Bargaining? Belonging? Believing?
7. What methods of decision-making are used to induce change in the system? Parliamentarian? Executive? Participative?
8. What feed-back is available to the agent and the organization concerning the response to the intervention of the agent? Is the agent sensitive to the feed-back? To the side effects?
9. To what extent is the agent prepared to modify his perception of the needed change based upon the responses of the organization to his first intervention?

IV Concerning the social system.

1. An organization is a social system -- or a system of social systems, if it has many autonomous units.
2. A social system is a regular way of allocating and distributing roles, resources, and rewards -- to make resources available to meet the needs of the members.
3. Roles, resources, and rewards are distributed -- publicly and privately -- in accordance with values held by the members -- or, sometimes, held by the most powerful members.

4. The allocation and distribution of roles, resources, and rewards is always imperfect, and change in the system is always taking place in an attempt to reduce inequity, frustration, and conflict.
5. Introduction of new roles, resources and rewards into the social system affects all parts of the system -- nearby and remote.
6. The principle of unexpected consequence is always applicable.

Examples: The effect of the introduction of the automobile on the roles, resources, and rewards available to the whole world. The effect of the idea of germs on health and social control. The effect of public relations roles on politics. Of outdoor cooking on the role of the father. Of humble astronaut on the European idea of the arrogant American. Of leveling on a staff conference and the whole organization.

V. Concerning approaches to the control and influence of human behavior.

1. Bargaining

The individual conforms to requirements when the conformity is perceived as to his advantage. His conformity is influenced by an agent who has control of the rewards and punishment perceived as salient by the individual whose behavior is to be influenced. Maintenance of control requires surveillance. The individual will take the advantage whenever he can without paying for it in conformity.

2. Belonging

The individual conforms to requirements because he identifies with the group and wishes to be a respected member. His conformity is influenced by an agent who has control of social approval, communication, membership, or relationships. Maintenance of control requires the continuation of the values of the group. The individual may experience conflict of group loyalties when his identification with one group requires behavior not approved by another group with which he is identified.

3. Believing

The individual conforms to requirements when he believes that they are in accord with his values or believes that they represent new values worth experimenting with. His conformity is influenced by an agent who can present ideas about new values or about the relevance of a behavior to old values. Maintenance of conformity requires that values seen as relevant to the behavior remain the same. Individuals may experience intense value conflict when conflicting values apply to the same behavior.

4. Change Induction

Generally it is harder to initiate change:

(a) by bargaining if the behavior is controlled by belonging or belief -
(b) by belonging if the behavior is controlled by bargaining or belief

(c) by belief if the behavior is controlled by bargaining or belonging

VI. On approaches to non-authoritarian decision making.*

1. Assumptions by all approaches concerning the applicable conditions.

a. One man has not the resources or should not have the power to make the decision without assistance.
b. The issue is one of policy.
c. The decision will affect the lives of all the members of the organization or social system.
d. The members hold heterogeneous viewpoints.
e. Members' positions on an issue may vary as issues vary.
f. Both general judgment and specialized knowledge is required.
g. Interpersonal communication is an effective way of making facts and opinions available for consideration.

2. Assumptions of Parliamentarian decision making -- the rule of the majority.

a. An issue of personal values is involved.
b. Members have mutually exclusive interests.
c. Each member has equal influence (one vote), except as his vote is committed to a sub-group.
d. Rational problem-solving is inappropriate (to a question involving personal values).
e. Specialized knowledge is available from consultants who should have no power (no vote)
f. The authenticity of expressed points of view varies with the extent to which its expression is in public.
g. The majority viewpoint determines the decision by voting.
h. The minority must accept and abide by the decision until the minority group can gain a majority and reverse the decision.
i. The decision stands until the opposition controls enough votes to reverse it.
j. Evaluation of the consequences on the decision is continuous by the opposing minority, who will seek to use its defects to gain power to reverse it.

3. Assumptions of the executive approach to decision-making -- the rule of responsibility.

a. Personal responsibility is involved -- the executive has sole responsibility for the consequences of the decision.
b. One man -- the executive -- has the only authority and the only direct influence on the decision; subordinates' influence on the executive varies with the executive evaluation of

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*Swanson, G. E. The effectiveness of decision-making groups. Adult leadership, 1959, 8(2), (June), 48-52.

his contribution.

c. Rational individual problem solving is possible and appropriate.

d. Specialized knowledge is available from subordinates and consultants as required. Consultants may have as much influence on the executive as subordinates.

e. Authenticity of members' points of view will vary with the anticipation of the consequences (on the career) of expressing the point of view.

f. The executive's viewpoint determines the decision.

g. All members have responsibility for implementing the decision.

h. Dissenters (majority or minority) must accept and abide by the decision until the executive reopens the issue.

i. The decision stands until the executive reopens the issue.

j. Evaluation (re-opening of the issue) time and methods are determined by the executive.

4. Assumptions of the participative approach to decision-making -- the rule of reason.

a. Reasonableness is involved.

b. Members have complementary interests--differing interests can be satisfied in the same group activity.

c. Member's influence on the decision will vary with the respect of the group for the general judgment and specialized knowledge of the member.

d. Rational group problem-solving is possible and appropriate.

e. Specialized knowledge is available from the members and from consultants as needed. Consultants are not involved in the consensus.

f. Authenticity of the expressed viewpoints of the members vary with the capacity of the group to tolerate disagreement and its accompanying hostility to support reason.

g. Group consensus determines the decision.

h. All members have responsibility for implementing the decision.

i. The decision is not made until all members are committed to action and evaluation.

j. The decision stands until the first time for re-evaluation arrives.

k. The time and method for evaluation is determined as part of the decision.

SOME SKILLS IN THE PROCESS OF STIMULATING CHANGE IN THE PERFORMANCE, ATTITUDES, OR UNDERSTANDINGS OF AN INDIVIDUAL, GROUP, ORGANIZATION, OR COMMUNITY

Skill Area 1

Assessment by the Change Agent or His (or Its) Personal Motivations, and His (or Its) Relationship to the "Changee" ("Change Agent" here may be an individual, a group, or an organization).
Some skills and understandings needed for this aspect of change:

(a) Understanding his own motivation in seeing a need for this change, and wanting to bring about a change

(b) Understanding and working in terms of a philosophy and ethics of change

(c) Predicting the relation of one possible change to other possible changes, or to those that come later

(d) Determining the possible units of change:

1. What seems to be needed

2. What is possible to him (or them)

(e) Determining the size, character, structural make-up of group of changees

(f) Determining the barriers, the resistance, the degree of readiness to change

(g) Determining the resources available for overcoming barriers and resistance

(h) Knowing how to determine his own strategic role in the light of the situation and abilities.

Skill Area 2

Helping Changees Become Aware of the Need for Change and for the Diagnostic Process

Some skills and understandings needed for this aspect of change:

(a) Determining the level of sensitivity the changees have to the need for change

(b) Determining the methods which changees believe should be used in change

(c) Creating awareness of the need for considering change and diagnosis through: shock, permissiveness, demonstration, research, guilt, "bandwagon," etc.

(d) Raising the level of aspiration of the changee and making aspirations realistic

(e) Creating a perception of the potentialities for change expectations

(f) Creating expectations to use a step-wise plan and to have patience in its use

(g) Creating perception of possible sources of help in this change

(h) Creating a feeling of responsibility to engage in this change by active participation.

> Note: Each of these steps and the skills categorized under them may be pertinent to changing: A person himself, his relations with others, the relations between several others, a total group, a community, or widely held opinion. Actually, each changee becomes a changer some place in the normal development of the change process.

Skill Area 3

Diagnosis by Changer and Changee in Collaboration Concerning the Situation, Behavior, Understanding, Feeling, or Performance to be Modified

Some skills and understandings needed for this aspect of change:

(a) Making catharsis possible and acceptable when indicated as a starting point

(b) Skill in use of diagnostic instruments appropriate to the problem: surveys, maps, score cards, observation, etc.

(c) Diagnosis in terms of causes rather than "goods" or "bads"

(d) Skill in helping changees to examine own motivations

(e) Examination of the relation of one change to other changes possible in that situation and helping changees understand

(f) Clarifying interrelationship or roles between changer and changee

(g) Skill in dealing wisely with changee's ideology, myths, traditions values.

Skill Area 4

Deciding Upon the Problem; Involving Others in This Decision; Planning Action, and Practicing These Plans

Some skills and understandings needed for this aspect of change:

(a) Techniques in arriving at a group decision

(b) Examining the consequences of certain possible decisions

(c) Making a step-wise plan

(d) Doing anticipatory practice in the carrying-out of a plan

(e) Providing for replanning and assessment at later stages

(f) Providing administrative organization

(g) Eliciting and eliminating alternatives.

Skill Area 5

Carrying-Out the Plan Successfully and Productively

Some skills and understandings needed for this aspect of change:

(a) Building and maintaining the morale of the changees as they try the change

(b) Deciding upon the amount of action to be made before pausing for an assessment of process and progress being used

(c) Understanding the effects of stress on changee's beliefs and behavior

(d) Defining objectives in a manner that leads to easy definition of methods

(e) Creating a perception of the need for relating methods to the goal in mind.

Skill Area 6

Evaluation and Assessment of Changee's Progress, Methods of Working, and Human Relations

Some skills and understandings needed for this aspect of change:

(a) Skill in the diagnosis of causes when group action becomes inefficient through the use of measuring instruments: Interviews, interaction awareness panel

(b) Skill in use of score cards, rating scales, etc.

Skill Area 7

Insuring Continuity, Spread, Maintenance and Transference

Some skills and understandings needed for this aspect of change:

(a) Creating perception of responsibility for participation in many persons

(b) Developing indicated degree of (wide) support for change

(c) Developing appreciation by others of work of participants who need support.

CONSULTANT ROLES

On the Elements of Interaction between a Consultant and a Client

To listen.--One way to think about what I do as a consultant is to say that I can listen or I can talk. I can listen to the client offer information--facts, figures, relationships, ideas, sequences of phenomena--without evaluation. Listening to his information puts few limits on my autonomy. The non-evaluative information implies little about my significance, worth, field of action, except that I am temporarily quiet and attentive.

I can listen to my client offer orientation--repetition, reflection, clarification, summarization, projection into time or space--without evaluation. Listening to his orientation still places little limit on my autonomy. Perhaps it implies somewhat less autonomy than just offering information, but still implies much autonomy for me.

I can listen to my client offer opinion--ideas, feelings, relationships, values, attitudes, goal-relevance, projection into time or space--with evaluation, for opinion, in this classification, is evaluative to some extent. The fact of the evaluative element implies some limits on my autonomy from the point of view of my client. I may not be bound by the same value system he is bound by, but I must get familiar with it, if I am to operate as a consultant in the system.

I can listen to my client offer a suggestion--a proposal, a proposition, in the form of a question or an opinion, but, in this classification, it is still a suggestion because it proposes action. A suggestion does not imply that the client expects to evoke punishment if the action is not taken; suggestions are not enforceable. The suggestion, as such, puts still closer limits on my autonomy, because it implies an expectation that I at least consider and evaluate the proposed action--that I project it in time and space and estimate its consequences, as well as my experience will let me.

I can listen to my client give direction--regulation, orders, sanctions, laws, rules, demands, coercive ordinances. It may come in many forms--requests, opinions, suggestions--but if it is clear that punishment will be applied or rewards withheld--if the implied instruction is enforceable, it is a direction. Such a direction limits my autonomy the most of any of the preceding forms of interaction.

What I can listen to can go down the scale of implied autonomy for me--from offering information, to orientation, to opinion, to suggestion, to direction.

To ask for.--I can, of course, do more than listen to my client. I can ask for information, or orientation, or opinion, or suggestion, or direction. In asking, I may judge how close I'd like the limits on my autonomy.

It makes a big difference whether I am a member of the social system in which I am consulting or I am an outsider temporarily attached to the system. If I am a member of the system (like a citizen trying to change his own community), I must conform to its core value system--or I must fight the system and take a chance on losing the fight. If I am only temporarily attached to the system (like a temporary consultant from outside the community), I may want to get well acquainted with the core values, but I don't have to conform to them myself.

Depending on how much I need to know, or evaluate and on how much I need to know my limits in the system, I may ask for information, or orientation, or opinion, or suggestion, or direction.

To offer or give.--In addition to listening and requesting, I can offer or give. Depending on what implication I wish to imply to my client about his autonomy in our relationship, I may offer information, orientation, opinion, suggestion, or direction. When I offer, he may listen, or repeat, or reflect, or clarify, or project, or evaluate, or suggest, or demand--according to his response to my implication about his autonomy in our relationship. By his response I can know better what I did--not what I meant to do, but what I did. By his response I can know whether his expectation and my expectation of our relationship are in accord or at odds. I can know something more about what I do and about our relationship each time I offer, and he listens, asks for more, offers more, accepts or rejects.

To accept or reject.--I can accept what the client offers or asks for or I can reject it. He can accept what I offer or ask for or he can reject it. If I begin with caution to maximize his freedom, I will offer only non-evaluative information, for this implies, for him, most autonomy. Later I can experiment with orientation, opinion, or even suggestion. Very seldom as consultant am I in a position to give enforceable direction.

If I can and do give direction--as when setting limits on my availability--and my client can't use it and rejects it, I may move back to offering suggestions. If my suggestions are rejected, I can move back to expressing opinion without implication for action. If my suggestions are not used or rejected, I may confine myself to orientation--repetition, reflection, clarification.

Where to start.--How do I know where to start. What will be most helpful? To listen. To ask for. To offer. To offer information, or orientation, or opinion, or suggestion, or direction? How do I know?

I don't.

I experiment and see what happens. I can train myself to be more and more sensitive to my client's feelings, but in the end, any consultant intervention is a provisional try. The response of the client to the provisional try will guide the next step--the next provisional try.

ONE SET OF DIMENSIONS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL INTERACTION PROCESSES

	Listen to	Ask for	Offer-give	Accept	Reject
INFORMATION Facts, figures, relations, ideas Without Evaluation					
ORIENTATION Repetition Reflection Clarification Summarization Projection into space or time Without Evaluation					
OPINION Ideas, feelings Relationships Values, attitudes Goal-relevance Projection into space or time With Evaluation Not for Action					
SUGGESTION Proposal Proposition For Action Without Enforcement					
DIRECTION-REGULATION Orders, sanctions Laws, Rules, etc. Demands, coercion For Action With Enforcement					

ONE WAY OF ANALYZING DEPENDENCY RELATIONS IN CONSULTATION

In situations where:

....The client asks for--and/or
....The consultant offers or gives
    ....information
    ....orientation
    ....opinion
    ....suggestion
    ....direction

....AND

....The client accepts without
    ....clarification
    ....elaboration, orientation
    ....projection
    ....own opinion
    ....own suggestion
    ....own modification

....THERE IS DEPENDENCY

....it may be realistic or unrealistic, but dependency is involved in the relationship

In situations where:

....The client asks for--and/or
....The consultant offers or gives
    ....information
    ....orientation
    ....opinion
    ....suggestion
    ....direction

....AND

....The client rejects without
    ....clarification
    ....elaboration
    ....projection
    ....own opinion
    ....own suggestion
    ....own modification

....THERE IS COUNTER-DEPENDENCY

....it may be realistic or unrealistic. The client is bending over backward to try to demonstrate that he is not dependent--one would think his protests serve to deny or suppress any dependency he is afraid he will be thought to feel.

In situations where:

....The client asks for--and/or
....The consultant offers or gives
    ....information
    ....orientation
    ....opinion
    ....suggestion
    ....direction

....AND

....The client either accepts or rejects only after

    ....clarification
    ....elaboration
    ....projection
    ....own opinion
    ....own suggestion
    ....modification
    ....action
    ....evaluation
    ....redesigned action
    ....reevaluation
    ....etc.

....DEPENDENCY IS SUBJECTED TO EXPERIMENTATION AND TESTED
    ....against client's experience and concepts
    ....against an action which can be evaluated by both client and consultant

In situations where:

....The client needs to have special skills available only temporarily; he is not likely to have need for such skills often,
    (as a patient with a ruptured appendix)
    (as a family with broken TV)
    (as home owner with a crack in the porch floor)

....DEPENDENCY CAN BE QUITE REALISTIC
and it can lead to greater freedom, autonomy, and self-respect.

In situations where:

....The client needs skills which he is going to continue to need and can provide for himself without undue cost
    (as a father with his first child)
    (as a mayor with community apathy)
    (as a citizen with a vote to be cast)

....DEPENDENCY CAN BE QUITE UNREALISTIC
and it can lead to the loss of freedom, autonomy, and self-respect.

On the Meaning of Dependability, Trustworthiness and Consistency

At many times it has seemed to me that to be really helpful to others as a consultant involves experiential validities more important than knowledge and skill--as important as they are. It has seemed to me that being helpful involves being dependable, trustworthy, and consistent.

I have often tried to be helpful by trying to be acceptant to my client--dependably and consistently acceptant. Sometimes, for limited periods, I have been able to do it--to be dependably and consistently acceptant, so that my client really seemed to know that he could expect consistent acceptance from me. And he knew that I would express no evaluation of him. He knew, and I knew, that I would neither agree nor disagree, neither approve or disapprove. He could feel clearly and firmly and surely that we would not get involved in the discomforts that seem almost always to go with the judging of one man by another.

As comfortable and as confident as he was about the non-judgmental nature of our relationship, my client was sometimes confused about whether I was helping him--even sometimes about whether I even wanted to help him. He was not always sure how I had helped him, even when he felt that he had been helped, and sometimes, to me, it seemed that he never seemed fully to understand my part in his thinking and planning about his problems. It seemed that he couldn't tell me from him. Once he said, "It's remarkable what happens when I really take the time to think seriously and carefully. Time is a really powerful resource, when it can be used at the right pace for thinking." And I thought to myself it really wasn't important who got the credit--but I didn't really convince myself. Selfishness, and reality, and mutual support weren't clearly separated out, it seemed to me--and I wondered if they needed to be, if he and I were to be clearly separate individuals.

There came a time when my client was fully aware that he would never know--in our acceptant relationship--where I stood on issues of importance to him. He experienced--at some very crucial times--my non-judgmental role as evasive and irresponsible. At those times he felt that I had a basic responsibility--as a fellow human as well as consultant--to express an opinion, if I held one; and he was pretty sure I held one. I said to myself that he must learn to deal with this dependency--that I really could not make his judgments for him, but I didn't really convince myself that he was really asking me to make judgment just for him.

There were other times when I was successfully dependably and consistently acceptant, and I found myself acting acceptant when I really felt rejecting, or annoyed, or resentful, or hostile. At such times I found myself asking, "Is this being trustworthy?"

It seemed to me then that to be trustworthy would mean to act just the way I am--to try my best to know myself and express myself so that I communicated to my client just exactly what I am, what I think, and how I feel; calm or excited, confident or scared, affectionate or hostile, friendly or cold, acceptant or rejecting.

The trouble for me was that I also learned, and further experience with me has confirmed it, that when I am hostile or even just sharply critical, I am seldom helpful to my client. I am seldom helpful, it seems, because for him to test and use what I have to offer, demands of my client too much submission to my hostility. Especially when he thinks I am right about the issue, I am not helpful, because, to use my work, my client must often over-simplify and say simply that I am right and he is wrong. The oversimplification deprives him of some of his rightful dignity, it seems to me, because I am almost sure that he is never just simply wrong. Human affairs are just not that simple and human beings are just not that simple.

Even if the work task could be so simplified, there is that about submission to hostility that is debasing in a way that is more than humbling and sobering. Sober humility has a full dignity in it.

Being rejecting and hostile is being me--more exactly but not really completely. I also want to help. I have asked myself whether I can develop self-awareness and skill enough to express and communicate all of me at once--the helping and the hindering--the hostile feelings and the trustworthy intent?

Probably not.

I can practice and evaluate and slowly learn better to express more nearly all of what I am at any time, but it seems too much to expect that I would ever really learn to do it--to communicate all of me at once is too much. This may mean that sometimes I won't be helpful. My client may resent me or attack me or resist me or ignore me. I feel pretty sure that, if he stays with me long enough, he may come to believe that I am trying hard to be dependably and trustworthily and consistently me--and, in time, all of me. In time, I might hope, my client would come to believe that being as exactly me as I can be is being dependable, and trustworthy, and consistent, and, above all, helpful.

The times have come, however, when an honest and conscientious client has said to me, "How can you expect me to feel? You are consistently critical, dissatisfied, demanding, and even hostile. You know your criticism and your hostility are destructive. I stand in the battered ruins of my own creations, shamed by my own deficiency in dealing with my problems, and undressed by your incisive precision. Do you really expect me to feel helped?"

All my strings were unravelled.

The things I do in the face of this conflict of mine are to try to be me without destroying more than my client and I can rebuild and rebuild better and more realistically than before. I can be acceptant when I feel annoyed and hostile--if I can feel that my hostility would destroy more than the fight is worth. I can sit quietly when I want to speak--if I can believe that my client can use my silence better than he can use my speech. I can seem calm and confident when I am scared--if I can believe that my fear is unreal and will dissolve with experience. I can express only a part of me--that part of me that I can believe will be most helpful. Is it me? Is it trustworthy? Is it dependable? Is it consistent? Is it helpful?

ORGANIZATIONAL APPROACHES TO PLANNED CHANGE

There are many forces that put pressure on an organization to change, but in our society three forces are outstanding: (1) Technical innovation; (2) Competition and the struggle for economic survival; (3) Man's growing desire for freedom and self-direction within the organization.

Man's desire to transform his dependence on the organization into beneficial interdependence that will support personal growth is a recognized, growing social force. It is a paradox that in our society man has great political freedom but very little organizational freedom. A cynic described the situation this way, "The ideal is to be an individualist privately and a conformist publicly--if you can pull it off."

There is a growing concern about a society that provides economic affluence at the price of increasing alienation. It is feared that prolonged discontinuance of personal, intimate, trusting experiences may impair or destroy man's distinctively human capacity to understand himself and to understand others. With reduced self awareness man is seriously handicapped when he attempts to implement change in a human organization.

What is an Organization?

Associated with each of the forces for change - technical, economic, and social - there is a concept of organization. These are simple concepts but they are important because they determine what we will try to change and how we will make changes.

The technical concept says that an organization is a collection of specialized tasks and work procedures. Coordinated work-flow results from logically connecting tasks. The purpose of the organization is to make a product. Its theory is the theory of task specialization and methods analysis. It assumes that task assignments will be followed without variance and coordination will automatically ensue. The usual method of change is to divide the work-flow process into new logical steps and then issue rational instructions. This method of change is adequate if: (1) the change is minor, (2) it will not adversely affect attitudes, and (3) you have legitimate authority to issue such instructions.

The survival concept says that an organization is an articulated structure of authority in which formal power is an attribute of one's position in the structure. Furthermore, the formal power of a position is subject to instantaneous revocation by the manager in a higher position. The purpose of the organization is to control behavior so that organizational response is predictable and unified. The usual method of change is forced compliance. This is adequate if: (1) it involves an observable act, (2) negative reactions are unimportant, and (3) the people involved do not need new skills.

The social concept says that an organization is a system of dynamically interdependent human beings who take part in the processes of (1) decision-making, (2) communication, (3) norm-setting, and (4) distributing rewards and penalties. The purpose of the organization is collaboration and adaptation to environment. The usual method of change is shared decision-making and open communication about goals, methods, norms, and need satisfaction. This method of change is adequate if: (1) the decision is not too complicated, (2) the participants believe their ideas are being used, and (3) the participants are comfortable making decisions.

Planned Change

When we look at change process from the standpoint of the knowledges, sensitivities and skills required by a change agent, the simple change sequence of unfreezing, movement and refreezing can be usefully expanded into a more complex set of phases. Eight phases are recognized here.

1. Diagnosis of the problem of the client system -- what is the trouble and what seems to be causing the trouble?

2. Assessment of the motivation and capacity of the client system to change itself -- what are the readinesses and resistances to various possibilities of change within the client system? Is there awareness of the need for change? Is it permissible to look at the central problems? Is there a feeling that change will be rewarding? Is there any anxiety about staying in the present position?

3. Assessment of the motivations and resources of the change agent -- why does the change agent want to help the client, and what are the practical, ethical, psychological, sociological and other limits of his ability to give help to a particular client system?

4. Establishing and maintaining a working relationship with the client system -- how to get a mutually acceptable and commonly understood picture of the responsibilities of the change agent and of the client in the client's efforts to solve its (or his) own problem?

5. Choosing the appropriate role -- shall the change agent mediate or counsel? Demonstrate or encourage? Represent some wider reality to the client system or support the client in its or his peculiar view of reality?

6. Selecting appropriate change objectives and targets -- of all the possibilities of change, which are most important and within the power of the client to accomplish and what is, all things considered, the best first step to take in an experimental attempt to change?

7. Provide support and encouragement for changed behavior -- what are the rewards for new responses? Provide opportunities to practice new responses. Remove rewards for old responses. Is the change consistent with organization standards?

8. Termination (or new continuity) of helping relationship -- when and how does the change agent pull out and leave the client on his own?

These are phases, not chronological steps or stages, of a helping process. Phase 1, 2 and 3, for example, may come up again and again for reconsideration during a process of consultation, supervision or training. And so with all the others, except perhaps Phase 8, the termination of the relationship.

Response to Change Depends on the Meaning of Change

Change is unsettling because we must give up some behavior we are skilled in and acquire new behavior in which we lack skill. Uncertainty and ambiguity stimulate us to search for meaning in the situation and then to react in terms of the meaning we construct. If, on the basis of the constructed meaning, we believe we will be worse off after the change, we will resist the change.

Conclusions - It is important to:

Build group norms and organization norms that support the change. An organization-wide change requires the involvement and support of top managers. In existing formal organizations what they say and do is a powerful standard that influences the behavior of other managers.

Expect hostile, apathetic, and dependent reactions. These are symptomatic of the threatening and ambiguous meanings attributed to change.

Expect failures in the early stages of change. Minimize penalties for failure. Provide rewards for change and opportunities to practice the new forms of behavior.

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